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MONTHLY REVIEW;

OR.

LITERARY JOURNAL, ENLARGED:

From MAY to August, inclusive, M, DCC, XCIII.

With an APPENDIX.

- ⁴⁴ Be niggards of advice on no pretence,
- 44 For the worst avarice is that of Sense.
- with mean complacence ne'er betray your truft,
- 44 Nor be so civil as to prove unjust.
 44 Fear not the anger of the Wise to raise;
 45 They best can bear reproof, who merit praise." Pops.

VOLUME XI.



LONDON: Printed for R. GRIFFITHS; BY T. BECKET, IN PALL MALL. M DCC XCIII.

MARY PROFILE LANG.

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T A B L E

OF THE

TITLES, AUTHORS' NAMES, &c. of the Publications reviewed in this Volume.

N. B. For REMARKABLE PASSAGES, in the Criticifies and Extracts, fee the INDEX, at the End of the Volume.

For the Names, also, of those learned Foreigners who are the Authors of new Differtations, or other curious Papers, published in the Memoias and Transactions of the Royal and other Scientific Academies on the Continent, and also for the Titles of those Differtations, &c. of which Accounts are given in the Review,—see the Index, printed at the End of this Volume.

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ТНЕ

MONTHLY REVIEW,

For M A Y, 1793.

ART. I. The Chart and Scale of Truth, by which to find the Cause of Error. Lectures read before the University of Oxford, at the Lecture founded by the Rev. John Bampton, M. A. By Edward Tatham, D. D. 8vo. 2 vols. 11s. boards. Rivingtons.

TATHAT is truth? and by what means may it be certainly distinguished from error? are questions which every reflecting mind must be disposed to ask, but to which all the wildom of philosophers has never yet been able to afford a perfectly fatisfactory answer. The history of ancient philofophy affords us little encouragement to have recourse to the school of Greece for the solution of this difficulty. The opinions of the philosophers, on the subject of truth, were almost as various as their sects. If we consult Plato, we are instructed that knowlege is only to be found by exerciling the intellect in the abstract contemplation of intelligible forms, or ideas, which alone are permanent and immutable; and that the most diligent study of the perpetually sluctuating visible world can yield nothing better than opinion. If the ideas of Plato appear fomewhat mysterious, and we have recourse to his successors in the middle academy, we are told that, though in the nature of things there be real certainty, yet every thing is uncertain to the human understanding. If we descend to a form lower in the same school,-instead of approaching, as might be hoped after farther investigation, nearer to satisfaction, we learn that we must not rely either on the fense, the imagination, or the understanding; and that our most perfect knowlege rises no higher than bare probability. If, from the academy, we step over to the lyceum, though the Stagyrite will meet us with a grand apparatus of categories, fyllogisms, and topics, we must not be sanguine in our expedations; for we shall find that Aristotle was not able, with all his tools, to build any system either of physics, or meta-VOL. XI. physics.

physics, which has conveyed to posterity the clear illumination and full conviction of truth. If we take a turn in the perch, we hear of preconceptions, or universal principles, which are to be employed as measures of judgment, but we meet with no one who is able to inform us how to distinguish true preconceptions from prejudices. Nor do we fare better in the Italic than in the Ionic school; as we may without hefitation conclude, from the endless diversity of opinions which, after all the debates of these schools, still remained. Had any of these wise men been possessed of the master-key to the temple of knowlege, it would have been in their power to

open the door to all posterity.

The learned author of the work now before us, though he pays a respectful attention to the ancients, and well knows how to profit by what is valuable in their works, is by no means inclined to yield implicit subjection to their authority. In an university, in which the name of Aristotle has been for ages revered, and where his logic is still taught, Dr. Tatham has the rare merit of oppoling established forms, and of recommending a radical improvement in the public discipline of With respect to Aristotle, he seems indeed to be of opinion that he himself had access to the temple of knowlege, but he confesses that he locked it up, and threw away the key; which, in the abfurd and superstitious veneration for his authority, was loft for many ages. The topical part of the Organon of Arithotle, which undertakes to establish the principles of all the parts of learning excepting the demonstrative, and to enach the laws of all probable reasoning, is, in Dr. T.'s opinion, weak in its foundation, and confequently infirm in all its parts. In short, he thinks that the logic of Aristotle, instead of being the instrument of all truth and learning, has, on the whole, been the instrument of ignorance and error, by which the Stagrrite has manacled the philosophy of succeeding times. This charge Dr. T. fully substantiates, by an appeal to facts in the history of scholastic learning; whence it appears that, from age to age, this weak and antiquated discipline has retarded, inflead of advancing, the improvement of The effect of this prejudice in favour of Aristotle is thus forcibly represented:

This was a prejudice, which, however weak and impious, took and kept possession of the minds of men for many ages; and which, growing into a confirmed and invenerate bigotry, prohibited further refearches under the presence of avoiding handel innovations. The genuine love of truth, which should burn with a free and ardent same, was smothered by this prohibition, and the exercise of the understanding in in pursue danked and contined. The ment of

the fludent was made to confift not in advancing knowledge by adding to its flock, or in rectifying and correcting what was falle and imperfect; but in remembering and preferving what was already only supposed to be known, and confirmed by an implicit and ignorant consent: and learned men, instead of roaming at large through the field of knowledge in the quest and acquisition of truth from every quarter, were like a flock of sheep running after each other

in the same beaten track of ignorance and error.

"Under the cloud of this prejudice and intolerant bigotry the public discipline of the schools was erected upon the model of Aristotle, and sanctioned by his authority, which was made absolute and unchangeable, in a dark and superstitious age, long before the birth of our English philosopher and reformer of science. And, though both our universities were invited by that great legal, political, and literary character, in terms of the purest friendship and condescension, to change and to improve their discipline, and to pursue a method of study less contracted and more liberal, less verbose and contentious, and more rational and philosophical; it is a truth we have at this day to lament, that this false and seeble plan of study and education has not been publicly expelled, and supplanted by a better: that Aristotle, who exploded all the philosophers before him, is not made to submit, in his turn, to the vicissitude of times and things, and removed from the high seat of penal authority which he has so long and so unjustly held in our universities.

Abfurd and imperfect as it is, the ancient discipline has still its advocates. To remove prejudices which have been early imbibed, and to disposses inveterate prepossessions, has always been found a task of dissiculty: and some think, that to change a constitution literary as well as civil, may be a work of danger. The greatest impediment to a reform is, however, that they, who are convinced of its propriety, are not willing to advance, and that, what should be the work of all, is the business of none. Hence, in the midst of an enlightened and improving age, this dark discipline remains in use, revered by some, contemned by many, and neglected by all: and the useless and unwieldy fabric is left to stand an antiquated pile, dishonoured and disgraced; over which, as over a venerable ruin, it becomes us rather to lament than triumph, and to conceal its particular desects by removing it out of the way, rather than to expose

them to public view.'

A laudable zeal for academical reformation, and for the general advancement of knowlege, appears to have been the ground-work of the present publication; the leading object of which is to affish the philosophical inquirer in distinguishing what he can know, from what he cannot know; and, by marking the modes and degrees of human knowlege, to surnish a general scale, or common measure, by which we may ascertain the particular nature and relative force of every kind of truth. We shall endeavour to give our readers a general idea of the manner in which the plan is executed.

Tatham's Chart and Scale of Truth.

The human mind being, after Aristotle, contemplated as theoretic, practic, and poetic, (that is, as possessing the powers of intellect, will, and imagination,) truth is considered as divided into three branches corresponding to these faculties. The several kinds of truth are deduced from certain principles, which are primary, the evidence of sense, consciousness, and memory; or secondary, axioms, or universal propositions derived from these evidences. A comprehensive view is taken of the exercise of reason, as it is employed in the direct investigation of truth, ascending by induction from particulars to generals, and descending by syllogism from generals to particulars, and, in the indirect method, by similitude or analogy.

This preliminary point being discussed with great logical accuracy, it is proposed, as the general plan of these lectures, I. To trace the distinct and proper principles of knowlege, to point out the right method of reasoning, and to mark that just assent, which appertains to the different kinds of truth; 2. To shew how all the other kinds of truth are subservient to theological; and 3. To discover in the different modes of abuse of the several kinds of truth, the causes of heretical and systematical errors. The first part of this plan is executed in

the first volume.

A logical estimate, in the sirst place, is taken of mathematical science. Its primary and secondary principles are investigated, and its method of reasoning and the grounds of its certainty are explained, with great perspicuity. The logic of physics is next unfolded; and the process by which general truths are gained in this branch of science, is clearly described. The comparison, which the author draws between the use of syllogisms and of mathematics in natural philosophy, will at once afford our readers a proof of the ingenuity with which he prosecutes his investigation, and of the freedom with which he occasionally ventures to depart from the ancient masters:

When the Secondary Principles, which conflitute the laser of physics, are thus inductively and analogically established, the proper use of Symmonths, in subjects of natural philosophy, is very simple, and common within a narrow circuit. This is only to reduce the parameter physicians that occur under the general properlises, for the truth of which they will account by communicating their own, and present us at once with new and useful inventions. All which is, indeed, properly and effectually done by a mere superincialism of the principle, or by the application of the general law to the particular inflances to which it belongs; and that without

the

Axiomata recle inventa tota agmica operum fecum trahunt; atque opera non iparium fed confosiim exhibent. Baconas de Augm. Se.?

the formality of a fingle fyllogism, which, in the opinion of the father of philosophers, is not only useless but injurious in subjects of philosophical disquisition.

After the general propositions are constructed, men who are born with definitions in their mouths, and bred up in the formalities of mode and figure, may, indeed, entertain themselves and others by playing at sopbisms and syllogisms, as children do at bide and seek: but, as from the latter we do not expect much useful work, so from the former we may despair of receiving either additional principles or new inventions. This idle game has been uselessly played for many Their mafter of the lycaum fyllogized before them to little purpose, besides that of promoting perpetual disputation t, and that of checking all useful and experimental enquiry, arrogating an implicit obedience to a false philosophy by a species of tyranny hitherto unexampled in the annals of mankind. And, if it would not spoil their diversion by shocking their devotion to the logic of that gratuitous and hypothetical reasoner, I would beg leave to lay before them what a true philosopher and logician thought of their employment. "Let men know this as a certain truth, that all subtlety of disputation and discourse of reason, if it be only applied after axioms are invented, is too late and indeed preposterous; and that the true and proper time for subtlety, or at least the principal time, is that which is employed in making experiments, and from them in forming For that other subtlety only mocks and catches at nature, but can never seize or lay hold of it ||." When they dispute how-

^{*} Nos demonstrationem per syllogismum rejicimus, quod consusus agat et naturam emittit e manibus. Tametsi enim nemini dubium esse possit, quin, quæ in medio termino conveniunt, ea et inter se conveniant; (quod est mathematicæ cujusdam certitudinis:) nihilominus hoc subest fraudis, quod syllogismus ex propositionibus constet, propositiones ex verbis, verba autem notionem tesseræ et signa sint. Itaque, si notiones ipsæ mentis (quæ verborum quasi anima sunt et totius hujusmodi structuræ ac fabricæ basis) male ac temere a rebus abstractæ et vagæ, nec satis definitæ et circumscriptæ, denique multis modis vitiosæ suerint, omnia ruunt. Baconus De Augm. Sc. Præs.

^{&#}x27;† Si quis in omnem illam librorum varietatem, qua artes et scientize exultant, diligentius introspiciat, ubique inveniet ejusdem rei repetitiones infinitas, tractandi modis diversas, inventione præoccupatas; ut omnia primo intuitu numerosa, sacto examine, pauca reperiantur. De Augm. Sc. Præs.'

^{&#}x27;† Et de utilitate aperte dicendum est; sapientiam issam, quam a Gracis potissimum hausimus, pueritiam quandam scientize videri, atoue habere quod proprium est puerorum; ut ad garriendum prompta, ad generandum invalida et immatura sit. Controversiarum enim serax, operum esseta. Ibid, in eodum loco.'

[&]quot; Hoc vero sciant homines pro certo, omnem subtilitatem disputationum et discursuum mentis, si adhibeatur tantum post axiomata inventa, seram esse et præposteram; et subtilitatis tempus verum ac B 3 proprium,

ever from principles which are better founded than the dreams and hypotheses of Aristotle, logicians would do well to recollect that in physical syllogisms the minor propositions are not general but particular, a circumstance which, philosophically weighed, might put a short period to their disputations, however tenacious men attached to forms and disciplines may be of their ancient privileges, and however willing to wrest every thing to them and them to every thing, and to consider their use and application as universal.

But, though the common fyllogistic logic can lend no useful asfistance to physical learning, either in its advancement or communication; as there is, perhaps, nothing in nature without rule and meafure, if philosophers can find them out, MATHEMATICS is its most

useful friend and handmaid.

The subject of pure mathematics are the ideal forms of quantity separated from body by an act of mind. The subject of physics are the qualities, causes, and affections of things as they exist in body, and produce, by that existence, various planamena and effects. To account for these phænomena and effects, as a science, by reducing them under the general laws of nature, physics from experiments by induction derives its general forms, and from them erects philosophical exiens: and it is in the application of the ferms of quantity to the forms of quality, wherever they are capable of accurate menfuration, that mathematical fo advantageously applies to the elucidation and promotion of physical learning. In all these cases it is of most essential use both in the act of deriving the general laws and principles of physics from experiments and phænomena; and also, after they are established, it is equally useful in calculating all their particular operations and officers, which are the other phonomena, and in adapting them, with the utmost address and ingenuity, to the use as well as elegance of civil, focial, and domestic life.

Motion is a general form of great influence and extent in the wonderful mechanism and occonomy of nature, to which the forms of number and figure apply, as an affection of various subjects, and capable of various mensuration. They begin with the moving power confidered as a iterad cash, (for which the first supendous cause, natural philosophy, has no direct concern:) or, if the physical cause cannot be properly attentioned from experiment and observation, which too often happens, they take a general phenomenonestablished on their authority, which will sufficiently supply its place. Upon this experimental foundation, they calculated the force, or the

proprium, aut saltem pravipuum, versari in pensitanda experiantia, et inde constituendis axiomatibus: Nam illa altera subtilitas naturam prensat et captat, sed nunquam apprehendit aut capit. Nov. Org. lib. i. Aph. 121.

* Nature vires legesque virium simplicieres ex selectis quibus dam phaeurent per analysin deducunt, ex quibus deinde per Synthesin reliquorum constitutionem tradunt. Cotesii Præs. in Newtonii

Princip.'

quantity of motion produced; they account for the different hinds of that motion; they shew how they are mixed and compounded, what direction and velocity they will consequently have; and they demonstrate the times and periods in which they are respectively performed.

From this application of geometry and numbers to the motion of bodies on the surface of the earth, we derive the philosophy of meachemics: by their application to the motion of the heavenly bodies we rise to the philosophy of aftronomy: and to their application to the motion of various founds, we are indebted for the fundamental part of the philosophy of surfic +—All which useful and liberal departments of learning, with some others, so far as the forms of quantity are concerned, may be allowed to partake of the nature and precision of mathematical science 1.

These remarks are succeeded by a very accurate investigation of the means by which Newton was enabled to make such won-

derful advances in the philosophy of nature.

The next subject, on which the lecturer treats, is the logic of sacts; concerning which, as in the former case, he traces its first principles to the external sense; explains its indirect mode of reasoning from analogy; and remarks that the species of truth, which results from it, is instructive and self-evident. To this he adds the logic of history, and examines the grounds of historical reasoning from testimony, and the nature and value of historical truth.

Leaving the theoretic division of the subject, he proceeds to practical truth, respecting the will; and, under this head, treats of the logic of ethics. The first principle of this science is maintained to be that internal or moral sense, which is the spring of moral action, and whence is derived our knowlege of a moral law and a moral governor. The general office of reason in the province of morality is shewn to be the formation of general axioms, or secondary principles, in the method of induction; and it is very satisfactorily esta-

† Τᾶ ὀπτικά ωςὸς γιφμιτείαι, καὶ τὰ μηχανικὰ πεὸς ειειωμιτείαν, καὶ τὰ σὰμοπκὰ ωςὸς ἀειθμητική», καὶ τὰ Φαινόμινα ωςὸς ἀερολογική». Aristot.

Analyt. Post. lib. i. cap. 13.

[•] Mechanica rationalis erit scientia motuum quæ ex viribus quibuscumque resultant, et virium quæ ad motus quoscunque requiruntur, accurate proposita, et demonstrata. Newtoni Præf. in Princip.'

^{&#}x27; f Mixta habet pro subjecto axiomata et portiones physicas: quantitatem autem considerat, quatenus est ad ea elucidanda, et demonstranda, et actuanda, auxiliaris. Multæ siquidem naturæ partes, nec satis subtiliter comprehendi, nec satis perspicue demonstrari, nec satis dextere et certo ad usum accommodari possint, sine ope et interventu mathematicæ. Cujus generis sunt perspectiva, musica, astronomia, cosmographia, architectura, machinaria, et nonnullæ aliæ. Baconus de Augm. Sc. lib. iii. cap. 6.'

blished, that ethical conclusions, though not capable of demonstration, are always accompanied with a clear and strong conviction.

The last subject of discussion in this volume is poetical truth, or that truth which respects the imagination; comprehending, under the term poetry, all the elegant arts. Here, as before, the author inquires after the poetic principle, and finds it to be that internal feeling called sensibility. The office of reason, respecting this branch of truth, is shewn to be, to investigate the causes of impressions produced on the internal feelings, and to assist the artist in applying them, in the different modes of imitation. From this part of the work, we shall select the sollowing elegant remarks on reasoning, as applied to the subject of peetic truth:

The truth of both facts and kiftery refults from the apprehension or investigation of particulars, independently of their causes; whereas that of poetry springs from the application of causes, and these general ones. The first act of reasoning is, therefore, from a number of particulars, by collateral judgments of effects produced by them upon the internal feeling, to collect these general causes; and the second, to apply them, by the different modes of imitation, in order to produce the poetical effect. Hence poetry is said to be more philosophical. Exterience is the soundation, industion is the first, and a judicious application of generals, is the second, act. And if these generals are well formed in the first place, and well applied in the second, the poetical truth will discover itself in the effect by a proportionable operation on the tensibility of all according to its powers.

Thus POETRY stands high in the eye of philosophy. It is founded in abdraction which is the sublimest operation of the mind, by which its ideas are not only generalized, but corrected and improved by an act of intellect, and rendered more perfect and complete than the archetypes themselves. These are the materials with which the imagination works, and which it moulds into forms of beauty superior to any that appear in the face of nature. And hence it is, that the imitative arts derive that excellence and superiority in which they glory. As by this power of abstraction the mathematician conceives the idea of a perfect circle or a perfect sphere, which in nature has no existence; and the moralist that of a faultless character: so from archetypes that exist in nature, the artist derives ideas to corrected and tublimed, that they become transcend-

ent, that is above, though not contrary to, nature.

* High incomes the and magaining grades, & & τέχες των καθολου. Arithot, Metophe libe is cape is!

^{1 1} M and Giber Carreer and countractings waters ingles tells. Huir 2008 more north to an anderty of different and and inages high. Ibid. de Poets caps 9.

Particulars and individuals, with all their deformities and imperfections, are, indeed, often applied by imitation to the production of poetical effect: but, to arrive at the summit of his profession, the artist should employ none but general ideas, with all the advantages which arrangement, disposition, and situation can give them; as did the intelligent statuary, to whose poetical genius the world has been indebted for the Venus de Medicis, or the Apoilo Belvidere.

But the imitation, by which these poetical ideas are employed in art, according to good take (which is only another word for judgment,) is of different kinds, and the just distinction of them is an acc

of RATIONAL and judicious criticism.

All imitation is resemblance, which differs according to the nature of the art: and the nature of the art depends upon the materials and instrument employed. Imitation is either direct or proper, or indirect and improper: and to discriminate its nature and extent in each of the elegant arts, as well as in the different provinces of the

same, is a piece of the most refined philosophy.

In sculpture and in painting the imitation, from the nature of the means and materials they employ, is direct and proper, and the refemblance between the statue or picture and what they represent, is both immediate and obvious. Words are the means or materials of patry: but words, though as sounds they may sometimes directly resemble sounds, are not the natural representatives of ideas, in which poetry consists; they are only their arbitrary signs, and do not, therefore, admit of any imitation so proper and direct. That part of poetry, in which the poet personates another, and employs his very words and speeches, is, so far as that personification goes, directly imitative. But, with regard to the effect which it produces, poetical imitation is indirect in a greater or less degree. The simplest and least indirect mode of this imitation, is that representation of sensible objects, which is called poetical description. From this poetry advances to a sublimer operation in the representation of mental objects, of all the passions, emotions, movements, and sensations of the mind; which it performs two different ways—either by representing

• Porro ut vehementioribus animæ affectibus originem suam debet poesis, ita in affectibus exprimendis vim suam præcipue exerit, et af-

fectus concitando finem suum optime consequitur.

Imitatione constare dicitur poesis: quicquid humana mens cogitatione complectitur, id omne imitatur; res, loca, imagines vel naturæ vel artis, actiones, mores, affectus: et cum omni imitatione magnopere delectatur mens humana, ficri vix potest, quin illam et delectet maxime et percellet ea imitatio, quæ ei suam ipsius imaginem exhibet, omnesque eos impulsus, flexiones, perturbationes, motusque secretos exprimit, quos in se agnoscit sentitque. Commendat imprimis hanc imitationem ipsius rei subtilitas et difficultas: hame magnam admirationem, cum cernimus id effectum dari, quod omnino vix effici posse judicamus. Cæterarum rerum descriptiones accuratas esse et naturæ congruere, memoriæ subsidio ac veluti per medinam quoddam, mens tardius intelligit: cum exprimitur affectus aliquis,

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... and aramatic poetry, into which every other spaced.

And to these is to be added another kind of imitatic velt, which conveys the thoughts and ideas of the minexternal objects of sense: this is paraborical and allusts. But, although the imitations of poetry be less direct and e of the other arts, they surpass them greatly in their ation upon the mind. Poetry, which from this superprinted the general name, is the mirrour of all truth y part of nature, corporeal and mental, is reslected and physics, sactions, and bistory seigned at please esented, by the different modes of its imitation, in a d above the common use, and which is peculiarly apptiels. And, whilst it exhibits a beautiful picture of e

rem ipsam quasi nude intuetur; ipsa per se conscia es m motuum, nec rem perspicit solum, sed et vel idem am stamin patitur. Hinc sit, quod ea sublimitatis spec hementi affectuum impulsu eorumque imitatione orit im humanum multo maximam vim habet: quicquid ei shibetur, utcunque grande et magniscum, minus eur nmovet, quam quod intus percipit, cujus magnitudine et vehementiam ipse apud se persectissimum est opus lum concitationem maxime ad sinem suum et effectum

 cies of truth, it softens the labour which attends their acquisition by affording the mind that refined and elegant recreation, which the most rigid philosopher need not blush to take o.

Dr. Tatham has certainly rendered an important service to philosophy, by giving a systematic view of the several kinds of truth, and of the principles of each, and the method of reasoning by which each is investigated. Had he been able to ascertain the secondary principles or axioms belonging to each department, we might have hoped to have been furnished with an instrument for drawing up truth from the bottom of the well in which it was left by the ancients.

The second volume of this work, in which the author profecutes his plan with a more immediate reference to the purpose of the Bampton lecture, will be noticed in a future article.

ART. II. Sermons. By the late Reverend John Dryfdale, D.D. F.R.S. Edinburgh, one of the Ministers of Edinburgh, one of his Majefry's Chaplains, and Principal Clerk to the Church of Scotland. To which is prefixed, an Account of the Author's Life and Character. By Andrew Dalzel, M.A. F.R.S. Edinburgh, Professor of Greek, and Secretary and Librarian in the University of Edinburgh, and Principal Clerk to the Church of Scotland. 2 Vols. 8vo. pp. 900. 12s. Boards. Cadell. 1793.

ALTHOUGH the literary world knew little of the author of this posthumous publication during his life-time, the sermons here published prove that he was endowed with rare talents; and the narrative prefixed to them shews that he possessed merit which entitles him to an honourable memorial. As we always have pleasure in contributing our part toward transmitting the names of valuable men to posterity, we shall, according to our usual method, preface this article with an abstract of the well-written account here given of the Doctor's life and character:

DR. JOHN DRYSDALE was born at Kirkaldy, in the county of Fife, on the 20th day of April 1718; being the third son of the Rev. Mr. John Drysdale, minister of Kirkaldy, and of Anne Ferguson,

daughter

^{&#}x27;Ea est omnis poeseos indoles ut a vulgari sermonis usu maxime abhorreat, atque verborum non solum delectu, sed et constructiono proprium quoddam et exquisitius dicendi genus affectet. Lowth Poet, Præl. iv.'

^{**} Equidem præclare nobis consuluisse videtur natura, quæ cum nos ad veri cognitionem longe a nobis remotam, nec sine magnis laboribus assequendam, vehementer impelleret, hæc nobis invenit et paravit oblectamenta, ut haberet mens nostra, quo desatigata identidem consugeret; ubi conquiescere, omnemque illum languorum et molessiam deponeret. Lowth Poet. Præl. 1.'

daughter of William Ferguson, Esq. provost or chief magistrate of the same town. He received the elements of classical learning at the parish school, under David Miller, a man who had also the honour of instructing the celebrated Adam Smith, and James Oswald of Dunikeir, persons who have reflected so much lustre on their country, the one as a philosopher and man of letters, and the other as an eminent statesman. Under the same master, were also educated Dr. John Oswald, Bishop of Raphoe, in Ireland, and Dr. George Kay, one of the ministers of Edinburgh, men likewise of considerable talents and accomplishments. So that Miller had reason to boast that sew individual masters of the most opulent and celebrated schools, had sent from their tuition a greater number of eminent men, than had been sent by him from the obscure school of Kirkaldy.

While at school, John Drysdale greatly distinguished himself as a classical scholar; and there he contracted that strict friendship with the most eminent of his schoolsellows, particularly Mr. Ofwald and Mr. Smith, which continued unimpaired through life. When he was thought to be sufficiently prepared for the University, to which young men go at a much earlier period in this country than in England, he was fent to college at Edinburgh, in the year 1732. He there profecuted his studies with great success, and soon attracted the notice of the professors, by the rapid progress he made in the acquisition of knowledge. After passing through the ordinary courses of languages and philosophy, he engaged in the study of divinity, the ultimate object of his repairing to the university; and having protecuted this the usual time, he was admitted to trials, according to the forms of the Church of Scotland, before the presbytery of Kirkaldy; and by them licensed to preach the gospel, in the year 1740.'

Having, for several years, been employed as affistant minifler in the college church at Edinburgh,

- He, in the year 1748, obtained a crown-presentation to the church of Kirkliston in West Lothian, by the interest of the late John Earl of Hopetoun, to whom he had been recommended by William Adam, Esq. of Maryburgh, architect; whose third daughter he afterwards married.
- In entering upon this charge, he met with some slight opposition, owing to an opinion industriously propagated, that the style and method of his preaching were not sufficiently popular, and that his discourses contained too great a proportion of the doctrines of morality. But this objection was soon obviated, after the people of the parish became better acquainted with him; among whom he had not remained long, till he became the object of a very general regard and effect, not only by the kindness of his disposition and his unwearied beneficence, but from the interesting and animated manner in which he inculcated the great truths of religion and morality in his fermons.\(^4\)

 Even the lowest of the people respected and revered his character; such was the success with which his instructions were attended, that it was observed of the morals of the inhabitants of the village in particular, which had been formerly noted for irregularity and vice, that they underwent a surprising change for the better, during the time of

cordial

Mr. Dryfdale's ministry;—a strong proof of the great utility of well

qualified teachers of pure and undefiled religion in any state!

Thus he lived for fifteen years, discharging, with sidelity, the fractions of a country clergyman, enjoying the domestic society of his own family, and the conversation of many literary and clerical friends, who occasionally visited him.

At length, in the year 1763, his fincere and stedfast friend Mr. Oswald, found an opportunity of serving him, by prevailing with the late Earl of Bute, to use his influence with the town-council of Edinbugh, that Mr. Drysdale might be admitted one of the ministers

of that city.'

Being appointed minister of Lady Yester's, the sermons which hapreached in that church, attracted always a great concourse of hearers, whom he never failed to delight and instruct, by an eloquence of the most nervous and interesting kind. Both his train of thought, and his manner of expression, were evidently such as strongly indicated a vigorous understanding, an original genius, and a prosound

knowledge of the human heart.

'His reputation as a preacher afterwards rose so high, that on occasion of an excursion which he made to London, to visit his friends and relations there, the late Mr. Strahan earnessly requested, that he would furnish him with a volume of sermons for publication. His friends pressed him much to embrace this proposal; and he seemed at length disposed to comply with their wishes. For, on his return to Scotland, he began to revise his sermons, with a view to make a selection for publication; but he had not proceeded far, till his dissidence induced him to procrastinate, and at last to relinquish, every resolution of that fort.

The same native diffidence and modesty were likewise the cause of his declining to appear as a speaker in the judicatories of the church. While he remained in the country, he seemed rather to avoid taking much concern in the management of church affairs; but on his coming to Edinburgh, he sound himself so much connected with Dr. Robertson, to whom he was always greatly attached as a friend, and to whom he considered himself as under great obligations, particularly for the earnest and essectival manner in which he had espoused his interest, in his translation to town, that he resolved to give that eminent leader every assistance in his power, in support of

what was called the moderate party in the church.'-

Without any solicitation on his part, and even without his know-ledge, the Marischal College of Aberdeen conferred on him the degree of Doctor in Divinity, by Diploma bearing date the 15th of April 1765: and the following year, the death of the Reverend Dr. John Jardine having produced a vacancy in the Tron Church, which is collegiate, Dr. Drysdale was translated thither, from Lady Yester's, which is a fingle charge. He there had the good fortune to have for his colleague the Reverend Dr. George Withart, principal clerk to the church, for whom he had long entertained the highest esteem and respect; and Dr. Wishart, in his turn, having a most sincere affection for bim, they sound the greatest comfort in being now so nearly connected. Never did two colleagues live together in more

Dryfdale's Sermonn

and uninterrupted habits of friendship; their constant study o oblige each other, by a perpetual feries of good offices. the death of Dr. Jardine likewise, Dr. Drysdale now obtained in the few clerical offices, which the Crown has to bestow on gy in Scotland. By royal warrant he was appointed one of jefty's chaplains, with one third of the emoluments of the of the chapel royal. The late Marquis of Rockingham n prime minister; and he was determined in his choice of ysdale, solely by the recommendation of Dr. Robertson. this office much improved Dr. Dryfdale's pecuniary circumstanfurnished him with the means of indulging his inclination for c hospitality, to a much greater extent than he had hitherto His house was open at all times to his numerous friends and stance; and it was their frequent place of refort. There, in ar, many of the younger clergy, and other young men, enjoyadvantage of his agreeable convertation, and never were hapan when in his company. There was fomething to cheerful, juming, fo benign, and, at the same time, so upright and den his manner, that he gained the efteem and good-will of all d any connection with him, without ever exciting the least deenvy. Even such as were of different sentiments in church effectived the man; and with feveral of thefe he maintained a jendly intercourse. As his turn of thinking on all subjects ar, acute, and judicious, he was very expert in the method of ling affairs. He had a peculiar facility and elegance of exin the numerous letters he had occasion to write, in a most

lence, and foen weakened him so much, that he could no longer rise from his bed. He still, however, retained his wonted endearing manner to his family,—only less animated, but affecting in the utmost degree. Thus he continued to grow weaker and weaker, until his constitution at last seemed to be quite worn out; and in him the church of Scotland lost one of her greatest ornaments, on the 16th of

June 1788.

Such was the conclusion of the well-spent life of this excellent person; whose integrity was inflexible, whose amiable conversation and manners were expressive of the extreme worth and benevolence of his heart, whose respectable character adorned his facred profession, and who was the delight of his friends, and of his family. Though gentle, unsuspicious, and candid, in an extraordinary degree, yet, as his soul was inspired with that noble elevation which arises from conscious virtue, and freedom from all deceit, his indignation was excited, whenever he detected in others any duplicity in conduct, or any deviation from the road of honour. As, in his public appearances, the energy and animation with which he delivered and enforced his instructions, carried a conviction that they stowed directly from the heart; so it was universally allowed by all those who were acquainted with his private life, that never any man more successfully illustrated what he taught, by his own conduct and manners.

From the preceding biographical sketch, which, though drawn up by a friend, appears (entitled to the fullest credit, the reader will be prepared to give Dr. Drysdale's sermons a favourable reception; and we will venture to assure those who estimate the merit of sermons by their utility, that they will find these volumes a very valuable addition to the public stock of instruction. Though not studiously ornamented with the lighter decorations of rhetoric, they excel in manly simplicity and energy of style: - but their greatest praise is, that they abound with good sense, and breathe a warm spirit of piety Many general topics of practical religion are difand virtue. cussed, with a variety of matter which discovers a mind innured to reflection and observation, and frequently with a degree of animation which leaves the reader impressed at the fame time that he is instructed. Preserving a happy medium between insipid triteness, and scholastic refinement, they will afford young preachers a good pattern for popular address. Though, in doctrinal points, the system of the church of Scotland is followed, even controverted subjects are treated The method is every where clear, the arrangement is accurate, and a unity of design is commonly preserved. In the words of Mr. Moodie, one of the ministers of Edinburgh, in a character of these sermons prefixed to the volumes, which we could without much scruple have adopted, we add, "These sermons seem admirably calculated to inspire the mind

with high sentiments of piety to God, trust in Providence, independence on the world, admiration of virtue, steady and resolute attachment to duty, and contempt of every thing that is
base and dishonourable."—As a specimen, we transcribe a
passage from the sermon on aspiring after persection; in which
the influence of habit in forming a virtuous character is well
represented:

The ground-work of this improvement is laid in the constitution of our fouls, which have a power of forming habits in any thing to which they apply themselves. Hence the saying, "That use or habit becomes a second nature." The dispositions that are acquired by repeated exercise, grow as constant and powerful, and as readily exert themselves, as those that are originally implanted within us. ·We find, by accustoming ourselves even to things, to which at first we had an aversion, that we contract such an inclination and bias toward them, as would cost labour and pains to overcome. Thus, among & the various tailes and pursuits of mankind, each man has, by reiterated application, got a certain bent to his own course of life, so strong, that should any obstacle present itself to stop or divert its current, it would, like a rapid river, furmount all, and regain its former channel; and the farther it runs it becomes more rapid and irrefistible. cious man, by long indulgence of his favourite passions, is at length so enslaved to them, that notwithstanding the frequent and sharp remonstrances of his own mind, and the fresh disappointments he meets with, he cannot extricate himself from his bondage, nor shake off the chains with which he is fettered. In the same manner the righteous man, by the uniform practice of virtue, gains fo fixed an attachment to it, that death is far less the object of his aversion, than There is this remarkable difference, however, betwixt wickedness. the good and bad man; that the latter, in turning afide to vice, does violence to himself, and must often do so through the course of his ·life; whereas the good man, if from the beginning he has not deviated from virtue, but held on strait in its path, has never suffered any violence; but with pleasure, and the consenting approbation of his own mind, has followed the tendency of his nature. If, indeed, he has been so unhappy as at any time to have indulged vicious dispofitions, it will cost him pains to break them off; but the difficulty is great only in the beginning, daily grows less and less, and at last vanishes altogether. We first try the exercise of virtue, we then talle its pleasure, take a nearer view of its beauty, discern its superior excellency, and grow fond of it; and at last we cannot abstain from exercifing it. By a constant attention to righteousness, and by adding one right action to another, the disposition to do good grows unconquerable, and the practice is made easy, uniform, and delight-Thus has God laid the foundation of improvement in our nature, by giving us the power of forming habits of virtue, whereby we grow to perfection. To be perfect, is to possess invincible habits in every virtue; and the way to form habits of virtue, is to practife it. It is practice alone which gives a matterly hand in any thing. It is

act theory, speculation, or revolving any art in our thoughts, that will make us ready and able performers in it; nothing but long trial and exercise can produce this. The same holds true with respect to virtue, which may justly be called, the art of life. Contemplation of its nature, surveying its beauty, even pleasure in beholding it, will not render us virtuous. To acquire this character, and to be able to perform aright the duties of life, we must unweariedly continue in the practice of righteousness. Virtue consists in action. Its real existence can be afcertained and fecured by action only. By one kind beneficent action we receive high satisfaction of soul; this pleasure leads to repeat what cansed it; this repetition heightens the self-complacency, and frengthens our eagerness to be kind and useful; and to we contract the habit of doing good. In the same manner, by once overcoming any unreasonable or unnatural passion, we discover its real weakness and deceit, are made sensible of the power of the mind, and are highly pleased with victory; and the consciousness of having acted a noble and worthy part, strengthens us against any after affaults. Thus, by one act of submission to God, and the order he has established in the world, the foul, which is naturally made to conform to its Maker and his determinations, feels the most agreeable self-congratulation from acquiescing in his will; and this invigonates our resolution to consent with cheerfulness, and yield with an equal mind, to all the destinations of our Supreme Father. manner also, we acquire habits in every other virtue. Begin, then, my brother; try how fatisfying righteousness is to thy soul. Taste the sweetness of temperance, and patience, and brotherly kindness, and charity. Persevere in the practice of these; and soon they will appear lovely and most excellent in thine eyes. Thou wilt prefer them to thy choicest joys in the world, and fix them still deeper in thy mind, that their abode there may be everlasting.

The subjects of these discourses are principally as sollows: charity; education; early piety; keeping the heart; the wretched condition of wicked men; the nature of repentance; the miserable consequences of sensual pleasure; our unsitness to judge of our condition in life; the distinction of ranks; aspiring after perscription; self-examination; the real nature of human life; immortality of the soul; a suture judgment; the hope of heaven, &c. &c.

ART. III. Three Essays: on Pisturesque Beauty; on Pisturesque Travel; on Sketching Landscape: To which is added a Poem, on Landscape Painting. By William Gilpin, M.A. Prebendary of Salisbury; and Vicar of Boldre in New Forest, near Lymington, 8vo. 10s. 6d. boards. Blamire. 1792.

At the present time, when we hear and read so much concerning picturesque beauty, many readers may wish to be informed in what it consists: the public are, therefore, under obligations to Mr. Gllpin for his very ingenious essays on Rev. May 1793.

this subject. He tells us, that, by objects of picturesque beauty, he means ' fuch beautiful objects as are fuited to the pencil." This is clear, and accurately defined; and we hope that the definition will receive attention from those travellers, who, journeying with their pencils in their hands, have scratched down every scene, however uninteresting, and have obtruded their works on the public under the name, as they chuse to call them, of picturesque tours. We hope, also, as the meaning of this newly-manufactured word, this nescimus quem de grege novitiorum, is thus afcertained, and limited in its application, that future writers who may adopt it will be exact in their use of it; and we trust that Mr. Gilpin himself will not call us cavillers if we ask him, what he would have us understand by 'a picturesque eye; and whether, by calling himself and his friend, we picturesque people,' he intends us to imagine that they are objects proper to be represented on the canvass?-If so, we certainly have no authority to deny that the gentlemen, to whom we mean no offence, are picturesque, for we have not the happinels of knowing the person of either.

On the subject of this species of beauty, Mr. Gilpin thus delivers his sentiments, in an address to William Lock , Esq.

· A published work is certainly a fair object of criticism: but I think, my dear sir, we picturesque people are a little misunderstood with regard to our general intention. I have feveral times been furprized at finding us represented, as supposing, all beauty to consist in picturesque beauty - and the face of nature to be examined only by the rules of painting. Whereas, in fact, we always speak a different language. We speak of the grand scenes of nature, though uninteresting in a picturesque light, as having a strong effect on the imagination-often a stronger, than when they are properly disposed for the pencil. We every where make a distinction between scenes that are beautiful and amufing; and scenes that are picturesque. We examine, and admire both. Even artificial objects we admire, whether in a grand, or in a humble stile, though unconnected with picturesque beauty - the palace and the cottage - the improved garden scene, and the neat homestall. Works of tillage also afford us equal delightthe plough, the mower, the reaper, the hay-field, and the harvest-In a word, we reverence, and admire the works of God: and look with benevelence, and pleasure, on the works of men.

In what then do we offend that the expense of no other species of beauty, we merely endeavour to illustrate, and recommend one species more; which, though among the most interesting, hath never yet, so far as I know, been made the set object of investigation. From scenes indeed of the picturesque kind we exclude the appendages of tillage, and in general the works of men; which too often introduce preciseness and formality. But excluding artificial

^{*} Of Norbury Park, Surrey.

ebjects from one species of beauty, is not degrading them from all. We leave then the general admirer of the beauties of nature to his own pursuits; nay we admire them with him: all we defire, is, that he would leave us as quietly in the possession of our amusements.

Having premised this, the author proceeds in his first essay to mark the distinguishing characteristic of picturesque beauty. In the second, he points out 'the mode of amusement, that may arise from viewing the scenes of nature in a picturesque light.' From this essay, we shall select such a part as may enable our readers, who are not initiated into the mysteries of the picturesque, to judge of the employment of its admirers:

From the objects of picturesque travel, we consider its forces of amusement—or in what way the mind is gratified by these objects.

"We might begin in moral stile; and consider the objects of nature in a higher light, than merely as amusement. We might observe, that a search after beauty should naturally lead the mind to the great origin of all beauty; to the

first good, first perfect, and first fair.

But though in theory this seems a natural climax, we insist the less apon it, as in fact we have scarce ground to hope, that every admirer of picturesque beauty, is an admirer also of the beauty of wirthe; and that every lover of nature reslects, that

Nature is but a name for an effect, Whose cause is God.

If however the admirer of nature can turn his amusements to a higher purpose; if its great scenes can inspire him with religious awe; or its tranquil scenes with that complacency of mind, which is so nearly allied to benevolence, it is certainly the better. Append survo. It is so much into the bargain: for we dare not promise him more from picture sque travel, than a rational, and agreeable amusement. Yet even this may be of some use in an age teeming with licenticus pleasure; and may in this light at least be considered as having a moral tendency.

The first source of amusement to the picturesque traveller, is the parsait of his object—the expectation of new scenes continually upening, and arising to his view. We suppose the country to have been unexplored. Under this circumstance the mind is kept constantly in an agreeable suspence. The love of novelty is the foundation of this pleasure. Every distant horizon promises something new; and with this pleasing expectation we follow nature through all her walks. We pursue her from hill to dale; and hunt after those va-

rious beauties, with which she every where abounds.

The pleasures of the chase are universal. A hare started before sogs is enough to set a whole country in an uproar. The plough and the spade are deserted. Care is left behind; and every human fa-

salty is dilated with joy.

And shall we suppose it a greater pleasure to the sportsman to pursee a trivial animal, than it is to the man of taste to pursue the beauties of nature? to follow her through all her recesses? to obtain a sudden glance, as she slits past him in some airy shape? to trace her

2 through

through the mazes of the cover? to wind after her along the vale?

or along the reaches of the river?

After the pursuit we are gratified with the attainment of the object. Our amusement, on this head, arises from the employment of the mind in examining the beautiful scenes we have found. Some-, times we examine them under the idea of a whole: we admire the composition, the colouring, and the light, in one comprehensive view. When we are fortunate enough to fall in with scenes of this kind, we are highly delighted. But as we have less frequent opportunities of being thus gratified, we are more commonly employed in analizing the parts of scenes; which may be exquisitely beautiful, though We examine what would amend the comunable to produce a whole. position; how little is wanting to reduce it to the rules of our art; what a trifling circumstance sometimes forms the limit between beauty and deformity. Or we compare the objects before us with other objects of the same kind:—or perhaps we compare them with the imitations of art. From all these operations of the mind results great a. sufement.

But it is not from this fcientifical employment that we derive our chief pleasure. We are most delighted, when some grand scene, though perhaps of incorrect composition, rising before the eye, strikes us beyond the power of thought—when the vox faucibus bæret; and every mental operation is suspended. In this pause of intellect, this deliquium of the soul, an enthusiastic sensation of pleasure overspreads it, previous to any examination by the rules of art. The general idea of the scenes makes an impression, before any appeal is made to the judgment. We rather seel, than survey it.

This high delight is generally indeed produced by the scenes of nature; yet sometimes by artificial objects. Here and there a capital picture will raise these emotions; but oftener the rough sketch of a capital master. This has sometimes an assonishing effect on the mind; giving the imagination an opening into all those glowing ideas which inspired the artist; and which the imagination only can translate. In general however the works of art affect us coolly, and

allow the eye to criticize at leifure.

' Having gained by a minute examination of incidents a complete idea of an object, our next amutement arises from enlarging, and correcting our general stock of ideas. The variety of nature is such, that new objects, and new combinations of them, are continually adding something to our fund, and enlarging our collection: while the same kind of object occurring frequently, is seen under various shapes; and makes us, if I may so speak, more learned in nature. We get it more by heart. He who has seen only one oak tree, has no complete idea of an oak in general: but he who has examined thousands of oak-trees, must bave seen that beautiful plant in all its varieties; and obtains a full and complete idea of it.

From this correct knowledge of objects arises another amusement 4 is that of representing, by a sew strokes in a sketch, those ideas, which 3 have made the most impression upon us. A sew scratches, like a short- to hand scrawl of our own, legible at least to ourselves, will serve to 5 raise in our minds the remembrance of the beauties they humbly represent;

represent; and recall to our memory even the splendid colouring, and force of light, which existed in the real scene. Some naturalists suppole, the act of ruminating, in animals, to be attended with more pleasure, than the act of groffer mastication. It may be so in travelling also. There may be more pleasure in recollecting, and recording, from a few transient lines, the scenes we have admired, than in the present enjoyment of them. If the scenes indeed have peculiar greatness, this secondary pleasure cannot be attended with those enthusiastic feelings, which accompanied the real exhibition. But, in general, though it may be a calmer species of rleasure, it is more uniform, and uninterrupted. It flatters us too with the idea of a fort of creation of our own; and it is unallyed with that fatigue, which is often a confiderable abatement to the pleasures of traverling the wild and favage parts of nature. - After we have amused eurselves with our sketches, if we can, in any degree, contribute to the amusement of others also, the pleasure is surely so much en-

There is still another amusement arising from the correct knowledge of objects; and that is the power of creating, and representing from starte; which is still more a work of creation, than copying from nature. The imagination becomes, a camera obscura, only with this difference, that the camera represents objects as they really are; while the imagination, impressed with the most beautiful scenes, and chastened by rules of art, forms its pictures, not only from the most admirable parts of nature; but in the best taste.'—

We are, in some degree, also amused by the very visions of fancy itself. Often, when slumber has half-closed the eye, and shut out all the objects of sense, especially after the enjoyment of some splendid scene; the imagination, active, and alert, collects its scattered ideas, transposes, combines, and shifts them into a thousand forms, producing such exquisite scenes, such sublime arrangements, such glow, and harmony of colouring, such brilliant lights, such depth, and clearness of shadow, as equally soil description, and every attempt of artificial colouring.

After having thus pointed out the sources from which the 'picturesque traveller,' as he is called, derives his amusements, Mr. Gilpin, in his third essay, investigates the art of sketching landscape after nature. We here meet with many judicious and useful rules, which deserve the attention of those who wish to attain this elegant and pleasing art.

Concerning the Didactic poem annexed to these essays, Mr.

Gilpin thus good-humouredly writes:

Several years ago, I amused myself with writing a sew lines in verse on landscape-painting; and afterwards sent them, as a fragment, (for they were not finished,) to amuse a friend*. I had no other purpose. My friend told me, he could not say much for my feery; but as my rules, he thought, were good, he wished me to

[·] Edward Forster, Esq. of Walthamstow.

Gilpin's Effays on Pieturefque Beauty, &c.

by fragment; and if I should not like it as a poem, I might into an effay in profe. - As this was only what I expected, I was appointed; though not encouraged to proceed. So I troubled ad no farther with my verses. me time after, another friend *, finding fault with my mode ribing the lakes, and mountains of Cumberland, and Westnd, as too poetical, I told him the fate of my fragment; ing the hardship of my case - when I wrote verse, one friend it profe; and when I wrote profe, another friend called it In his next letter he defired to fee my verfes; and being I with the subject, he offered, if I would finish my poem, ver carelessly as to metrical exactness,) he would adjust the ation. But he found, he had engaged in a more arduous afhan he expected. My rules and technical terms were flubborn, uld not easily glide into verse; and I was as stubborn as they, ould not relinquish the scientific part for the poetry. My s good-nature therefore generally gave way, and fuffered many o fland, and many alterations to be made, which his own afte could not approve. I am afraid therefore I must appear to rld, as having spoiled a good poem; and must shelter myself under those learned reasons which have been given for putting qua maribus and As in prafenti, into verie.

th respect to the merits of the poem; the opinions of blic will probably be similar to those of Mr. Forster and

Mr. Mason: those readers, who peruse it for the rules which it contains, will possibly wish that it had been written in prose; while others, who view it as a piece of poetry, will lament that the muse sometimes moves rather ungracefully amid the roughnesses of technical terms and didactic stumbling blocks.

The washed prints, or acque tintas, with which this work is embellished, are well adapted to illustrate its rules and principles.

ART. IV. Geometrical and Graphical Essays, containing a Description of the Mathematical Instruments used in Geometry, Civil and Military Surveying, Levelling and Perspective, with many new Problems illustrative of each Branch. By George Adams, Mathematical Instrument Maker to His Majesty, and Optician to His Royal Highness the Prince of Wales. 8vo. pp. 500, and 33 Plates. 13s. boards. Sold by the Author, Fleet-street.

Mr. Adams very justly observes, that 'those who have had much occasion to use the mathematical instruments, constructed to facilitate the arts of drawing, surveying, &c. have long complained that a treatise was wanting to explain their use, describe their adjustments, and give such an idea of their construction, as might enable them to select those which are best adapted to their respective purposes.' M. Bion's treatise, which was translated into English by the late Mr. Stone, and published in 1723, is the only one that has been written on the subject 's and the numerous improvements which have been made in instruments, fince that time, have rendered that publication of little use at present. The object of Mr. Adams, in the work before us, is to obviate this complaint; and we think that he has done it with considerable effect.

Mr. Adams begins, very properly, by defining the terms which he must necessarily use. He then states a few of the primary principles on which his work depends; and afterward proceeds to describe the mathematical instruments which are used in drawing. Among these, we find an account of an improved pair of triangular compasses, a small pair of beam compasses with a micrometer, sour new parallel-rulers, and several other instruments which had not been hitherto de-

That to thy taste and science nothing new Presents, yet humbly hopes from thee to gain The plaudit, which, if nature first approve, Then, and then only, thou wilt deign to yield.

[•] Mr. Robertson's book, printed in 1747, and again, with some additions, in 1757, is confined wholly to such instruments as are put into a case, and called drawing instruments.

Adams's Geometrical and Graphical Effdys,

These descriptions are followed by a large collection etrical problems, some of which appear to be new; are useful, inasmuch as they contribute to lessen labour,

mote accuracy.

nuthor next describes the methods which were used by rality of instrument-makers in dividing quadrants, and ge astronomical instruments, before Mr. Bird published od of dividing, in 1767, at the instance of the board tude. Then follows Mr. Bird's method, extracted s own publications, and Mr. Ludlam's remarks on

ublished by Mr. Aubert in 1787.

Idams will no doubt excuse us for observing that he has I two remarks on Mr. Bird's method of dividing; one om Mr. Smeaton's "Observations on the Graduation onomical Instruments," in the Philosophical Transvol. LXXVI. p. 15 and 16, and the other from Mr. s "Remarks on Mr. Bird's Method of Dividing," the which, notwithstanding they came from the pens of great men, had, in our opinion, been much better. The passage which Mr. Adams has extracted from Mr., shews clearly that the latter did not comprehend Mr., ift in the instructions which he has given for dividing ical instruments. The very circumstances to which

formed all his divisions by bisections; that is, by faint scratches fruck with the beam-compasses, from the two ends of the arch which he was bifecting. If these strokes coincided, nothing can be more easy than to see whether the line formed by them bifects the original point, or not: and if they happen not to coincide, it is equally easy to discover whether they sall equally distant from it. In short, Mr. Smeaton has been so eager to find faults in Mr. Bird's method of dividing, that he feems to have been led into fomething very like a contradiction of him-He first allows that the bisections may fall into the original points, without sensible error, because they communicate with, and take their departure from, those points: but adds, immediately afterward, that these original points are of an heterogeneous nature to the bifections, inafmuch as they are not derived from the same source with them, but from the property of the chord of 60° being equal to the radius of the circle; and, therefore, improper to be mixed with them. If the bifections communicate with, and take their departure from, the original points, these points cannot be heterogeneous; if they do not take their departure from these points, the points and bisections are real checks on each other; and this last is the case; the bifections taking their departure only from o, and the point of 85° 20', which is laid down in a different manner from the rest, though it be derived from them.

Let it not be supposed that we mean, by what we have here said, to detract from the merit of Mr. Smeaton. We know Mr. Smeaton well; and we know that the industry, skill, and resolution which he exerted in rebuilding the light-house on the Eddy-stone; the prodigious improvement that he made in mill-work, and, indeed, in engines of every kind; and the many masterly performances which he has lest behind him in hydraulics and inland navigations; shed a lustre round his name, from which we are as unable as unwilling to detract: but it is nevertheless true, at least in our opinion, that the great veneration which he entertained for every thing that came from Mr. Hindley, a veneration which was not, altogether, without reason, has led him to think better of his method of dividing than it deserved, and worse of Mr. Bird's than he ought to have done.

The animadversion which is copied from Mr. Ludlam, is this: "It appears, also, that Mr. Bird, notwithstanding all his objections to, and declamations against, the practice of fleping, sometimes used it himself." Before we give our reasons for differenting from this remark, we must be allowed to say that it appears in a much more exceptionable point of view in Mr.

Adams's

Adams's Geometrical and Graphical Effayt.

's book than it does in Mr. Ludlam's work; because Mr. has left us to find out how it appears that Mr. Bird not allow in others what he practifed himfelf; while Mr. n, by referring to the page in Mr. Bird's publication, the paffage in question occurs, has enabled us to shew has not done that of which he is here accused. Bird, in page 12 of his "Method of dividing Aftronoinstruments," informs us, that, in order to lay off an ex-153,6 inches, which he wanted in constructing his scale al parts, he took \$1,2 inches, the longest distance adg of continual bifection, that he could take, from fuch a s he had before him, and laid it off three times; and then l each of these three lengths by continual bisection, - the d which he always used, and every where recommends. impossible to observe, without some degree of surprize, eminent a mechanic as the late Mr. Ludlam thould not with between a matter of necessity, and a matter of : between the act of fetting off a certain length which ranted, and the act of dividing that length into equal after it was fet off. Mr. Bird might, with equal probe accused of stepping, on account of his manner of off the total arch on the limb of a quadrant; but we offirm that Mr. Bird, as far as appears from any thing

vius, the jesuit, who first published it in 1611, in a treatise on the construction of a dialing instrument. As this treatife of Clavius, at least of the date which Mr. Adams affigns to it, is not within our reach at present; we cannot controvert what he has advanced, nor have we any inclination to question the accuracy of his translation +. The construction which Mr. Adams has given is certainly on the same principle on which Vernier's method of division is founded; and the publication was prior to that of Vernier by twenty years: -but, granting all this, it by no means proves that Peter Vernier was not the first man who applied this mode of sub-division to instruments; much less is it a proof that it was done by Nomins, and that the device ought to be called by his name: for, in the first place, as far as appears from what is given by Mr. Adams, Clavius has only shewn how some certain arc of a circle may be divided into any number of equal parts by the compasses: he has not thewn how to effect this on the limb of an inftrument by the application of a separate piece, which, being attached to the alidade, or index, of the instrument, may be brought to a coincidence with any part of the limb where the sub-division may be required to be made; which is the thing effected by Vernier, and to which invention the modern aftronomers have ventured to give his name. It must nevertheless be acknowleged that, if this construction of Clavius were known to Vernier, as it most likely was, it takes from him much of the honour of discovery; leaving him only that of having applied to an uleful practical purpose the speculative invention of another person:-but, we may ask, in the fecond place, what concern this has with Nonius?

[•] Clavins was born at Bamberg, in Franconia, in the year 1537; and died, at Rome, in 1612. He was a most indefatigable mathematician; and is said to have been remarkable for his great piety, modesty, and humility.

[†] It may not, however, be foreign to the purpose, if we remark that Clavius had given the construction and use of a dialing instrument in 1586, and had there also shown how to divide the arch of a circle into any number of equal parts: but the method given there is very different from that given by Mr. Adams; being, literally, Curtius's method, by concentric circles; which was an improvement on that invented by Nonius. It may be added, that Clavius has given, in the same tract, a variation from the method of Curtius; where he proposes that the several concentric arcs shall each of them be divided into 128 equal parts, instead of 60, as Curtius had directed, for the express purpose of forming all the divisions by the simple method of continual bisections only: the mode now universally allowed to be the best; and, indeed, the only one that can be executed with certainty.

Adams's Geometrical and Graphical Effays.

ight it gives any person to call the device by his name? ell the world that "whoever has paid any attention to life will find as much affectation among astronomers, as among sops and beaux; and as much enthusias, combined igotry, among philosophers, as in the sectarian spirit of a reacher "," because they have left off calling a device by me, which they have discovered was not known till long e was dead, and have called it by the name of Vernier, e, for any thing which is yet shewn to the contrary, he c person who first brought it into use.

fining the order in which Mr. Adams has arranged his, we next meet with the description of a very curious nent for describing arcs of circles of any radius what-which is followed by Dr. Hook's description of a similar nent invented by him for the same purpose; and also Dr. s method of making it describe circles, the centres of shall be in any point, provided that point be visible, it may not be accessible. Next follows a very ingesting on the several 'methods of describing arcs of circles magnitude,' by Joseph Priestley, Esq. of Bradin Yorkshire; and then a description of Suardi's netric pen;' which, on account of the great number of that it will describe, is undoubtedly a most curious in-

the time of the hirth of Dr. Blair. We remember to have feen an inftrument, made by Mr. Bird, about the year 1758 or 59, with a spring under the head of the screw that binds in the centre pin, to prevent that screw from being screwed up too tight; and, on inquiring of Mr. Bird the reason of it, we were told that the late Admiral Campbell had discovered, "long ago," that if the centre work was not perfectly free, the index would bend in the direction of the plane of the quadrant, notwithstanding the index of his quadrant was of brass, and nearly two inches broad:—but this is not all: we have seen it noticed by several writers on the subject of Hadley's quadrant, and remedies offered for obviating it; some of which are of nearly twenty years standing.

Another remark, from Mr. Nicholson's Navigation, is, that observers at sea generally chuse to stand in the ship's waist, when they take altitudes, because the height of the eye above the water is not so much altered by the motion of the ship. The writer of this article has been at sea for many years, both in king's ships and merchantmen, and he declares that the remark is new to him. We ought to have premised that this observation occurs under the article of Astronomical Observations at land with the Hadley's Octant and Sextant; which follow surveying, and include, also, the methods of making observations at sea with that instrument, for finding the latitude and longitude of the ship, the variation of the compass, and several other articles, necessary to be understood by every mariner.

We are next presented with 'A Course of Practical Geometry on the Ground,' by Isaac Landman, Professor of Fortisication and Artillery to the Royal Military Academy at Woolwich: of which, if we may judge from the compliments paid to the author of it in the presace, Mr. Adams thinks very dif-

terently from us.

The volume concludes with 'An Essay on Perspective, and a Description of some Instrument for facilitating that useful Art;' and here Mr. Adams has laid down a great number of elementary principles, in a manner which, we conceive, will be very useful to many persons. On the whole, though we differ from the opinion of Mr. Adams in some points, we can nevertheless give it as our unbiassed judgment that his work has unquestionable merit, and will be sound of great use in a very considerable variety of respects.

ART. V. Antiquities of Ircland: By Edward Ledwich, LL. B.
'M. R. I. A. and F. A. S. of London and Scotland. 4to. pp.
484. 21. 23. boards. Dublin, Grueber; London, Dilly.

When we meet with a professed antiquary, who is, at the fame time, a man of general learning, cultivated taste, liberality of sentiment, and a correct and elegant writer, (instances of which, in such happy union, are not very common,) we accompany him in his literary and scientific excursions, with rare and peculiar satisfaction. Such a man, such a writer, is Mr. Ledwich,—whose entertaining and instructive performance we now, without farther preamble or ceremony, but with sincere pleasure, introduce to the acquaintance of our readers.—His valuable work ought to have been sooner noticed in our Review: but interruptions, with the unpleasant detail of which we shall not trouble our readers, or ourselves, have retarded its appearance.

Mr. Ledwich is very sensible that he has powerful prejudices and great names to combat: he knows that it would have been a more easy and more popular task, had he applied to a confirmation and elucidation of the Irish mythologic history: but then, (he adds,) I should have proclaimed my ignorance of its sictitious origin, of the low estimation in which it is held by the learned and inquisitive of every country; and what would have been infinitely more blameable, I should have written against the conviction of my own mind.' He therefore courageously opposes, and not unfrequently censures and ridicules, the strange affertions and puerile absurdities which

have been advanced and maintained on the subject.

Mr. Ledwich's work is divided into nineteen essays; perhaps the most proper method of reviewing it may be, to offer a

short account of each.

The colonization of the country in early ages, is naturally the first topic which salls under Mr. Ledwich's view. What will our old friend Mr. O'Halloran * say to the utter and contemptuous rejection, not only of the tale of Noah's grand-daughter and Partholanus, but also of the Milesian colony, on which that gentleman descants with so much enthusiasm and considence, and, as it must be allowed, with considerable ingenuity?—To a mind, zealous like his for the glory of his country, and enamoured with its ancient honours, how ungrateful must be these humiliating accounts!—Of the sour grand classes by whom ancient Europe was possessed, Mr. Ledwich sixes on the first, the Celtes, who extended themselves from the Bosphorus Cimmerius on the Euxine to the Cimbric

^{*} See M. Rev. for Jan. 1779, vol. lx. p. 4.

Cherfonese of Denmark, dispersing themselves over Western Europe and her isles. This tribe, having colonized England and Scotland, passed from the latter country into Ireland. These were disturbed by the Firbelgs, a branch of the second class, or great Scythian swarm, which, isluing from Persia, dispersed into every part of Europe. Under the name of Belgre, they came from the northern coasts of Gaul, and are said to have occupied no inconsiderable portion of Britain and of Ireland, long before the arrival of the Romans: but the age in which they thus fettled is alike uncertain with that of their predecessors the Celtes. The Picts and Scots from Scandinavia, and with them the Saxons, claiming the same Scythian origin, are apprehended to have made their incursions, and to have fixed their abode in some part of the Island, about, and after the time of, the Christian zera. These different emigrants; as they arrived, intermixed with the Celtes; and their intrusions, under various names, seem not to have ceased till about the 12th century.—This is an outline, and a very brief one, of Mr. Ledwich's system of colonization; not founded. he fays, on hypothesis and etymology, but on the surer base of written authorities, compared with and illustrating each other : and which, while it dispels obscurities, casts a steady and bright light on every branch of Irish antiquities.

The succeeding chapter contains The History and Antiquities of Glendeloch, in the County of Wicklow: This place feems to have been a favourite feat of superstition from the earliest ages: and Christian missionaries, remarks this writer, were forced to adopt the high pretentions and conjuring tricks of their heathen predecessors. They found it indispensably necessary to procure some faint, under whose protection the inhabitants might live secure from temporal and spiritual evils. At a loss for a patron, they adopted a practice common throughout Europe in the dark ages, that of personifying rivers, mountains, and places. This custom had reached Ireland: and now the mountain Keun at Glendaloch, was to be metamorphosed into Saint Kevn. Kevn is the name of many mountains in Wales. noticed by Camden. This is an original Celtic word, for which the Irish in after ages substituted the Teutonic drum, introduced by the Belgic colonies.'—Glendaloch was once a city, with feveral churches, the remains of which are here described; and though Mr. Ledwich acknowleges it 'a positive fact that few of the faints, who adorn the legends of this country, ever had existence,' yet, lest his work should be reckoned defective, he proceeds to detail some of the monkish tales concerning St. Kevn, alias, St. Coemgene: but he re-

counts chiefly to expose.

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history of the Irish Culdees forms an instructive and ening effay: the name Culdee, which has given rife to fanonjectures, is derived, no doubt, from Cale Deum, figg that they were worshippers and servants of the true This monaftic order commenced in this remote part of orld, in the 6th century. Columba is known to have ts founder: he was eminent, and fo were his followers, more rational piety, and ufeful knowlege, although not y free from superstition. Distinguished (says this) for letters and an inviolable attachment to religion, dversaries, devoted to the Romish see, have configned ame and tenets to oblivion; while others of inferior mepompoully brought forward, and extolled for virtues they never pollefled, and for actions which they never ned.' Very few writers have done justice to the Cul-They were too much attached to fimple truth and pure ianity, to find favour with those who aimed at wealth and , and enjoyed the temporary benefit of human impositions evailing ignorance. Even Bede, venerable as he was, he allots them great and just commendation, cannot paffing some centure on them, and seems to have rethem as schismatics, in the worst sense of that word. flore them to deferved respect is the object of this disin.-Hy, Hu, or iona, (to called from its oval or eggape,) one of the Hebrides, has been rendered famous

It was natural, in this short history, to take notice of two celebrated monks, Aidan and Finan, who, on application to the king of the Picts or Scots, were fent from the little Irish fraternity at Hy, to re-establish some christian churches in England. This has been confidered as a fact militating against English episcopacy, or unfavourable to that hierarchical succession, of which some persons have been disposed to boast, Mr. Ledwich does not view the fact as hostile to the claims of bittops, but he expresses himself briefly and rather obscurely

on the subject.

This evay concludes with an account of Mondincha in the county of Tipperary, and its antiquities. In this island stood a Culdean abbey and church, where several of the order refided; and it appears, that in 1185 they 'had not conformed to the reigning superstition: they devoutly served God, (says our historian,) in this wild and dreary retreat, facrificing all the flattering prospects of the world for their ancient doctrine and discipline.'-We have some entertaining particulars relative to this island, accompanied with fensible remarks concerning Columba, and the particular office (of late years) appointed for celebrating his festival: for it appears that he was not supplicated in Ireland as a patron-faint before the year 1741. author, for the fake of the more enlightened Roman catholics, exposes some wilful mistakes committed by the compiler of this office.— The detection, (fays he,) of these errors, and many more that will be brought forward in the course of this work, cannot but have a happy influence in opening the eyes of every rational man, who must see with concern, the unjustifiable attempts that have been made to enthral the understanding by bold fictions, and gross untruths.'

The chapter which next occurs, is ingenious and learned: it treats of the Ogham characters, and alphabetic elements of the Irish language. The famous inscription on Callan mountain, an account of which was prefented to the Society of Antiquaries, a few years ago, by Colonel Vallancey *, here finds its overthrow; at least the imaginations about it are attributed to credulity, or to a defire of advancing something surprizing Concerning the Ogham characters, we can and marvellous. only remark that they appear to be Runic (secret) marks, borrowed from the Roman notes used in divinations, &c. and afterward employed to magical and deceitful purposes by the chiefs and priests of the barbarians. - With respect to the alphabetic elements of the ancient Irish, it is probable that they were received from the Britons and Saxons, who, in their

[•] See Archaeologia, vol. vii. p. 276, and M. Rev. vol. lxxiv. p. 269.

^{*} Rev. MAY 1793.

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lerived them from the Romans,—For the illustration and of this conjecture, the reader must at his leisure consult ompendious essay.

nnected with the foregoing subject is the differention on I trish coins. Here, as in other instances, this sensible and ite writer lowers the towering ambition and mortises the

of feveral of his countrymen:

ne date (fays he) of the earliest Grecian coins is about 800 perfore the incarnation, and that of the Roman five centuries we must then be at a loss to discover by what rules Irish antisconduct their inquiries concerning Irish money, for they are tly not those of learning and good sense, as then they would roduced something rational and sober on the subject; whereas nothing but the wildest whimsies, and all the exorbitance of tic and licentious affertion.—Our writers, with unblushing cone, affure us, gold was found and refined here a thousand years. Christ; and mints erected, and silver coined five hundred perfore the same event:—but in vain we inquire for the coins of deal mints.'

e barbarism of the natives, to a late period, surnishes suftreason to consider the above as idle dreams. Diodorus is, Strabo, Solinus, &c. agree in this description; nor t appear that any different inference is to be drawn from certain and obscure passage in Tacitus, which has somebeen opposed to the sormer, and which is here carefully all confess to be a sectitious king of Scotland, minted gold and silver, A.D. 199. A story rejected with just contempt by the anti-

quaries of that kingdom.

"Edward III. in the 5th year of his reign, directed a new coinage for Ireland, as he did for England; but as there are no specimens of the former, it is likely his intentions were never carried into execution. That the Irish did not adopt money as a standard for estimating the value of things about 70 years after, we have evidence in Mac Murrogh the prince of Leinster's horse being rated at 400 cows."

Having farther remarked, that an account of the priory of Athassel, in the county of Tipperary, is attached to this atticle, it is more than time that we proceed to,

Observations on the stone-roofed Chapels of the ancient Irish:

'If Vitrovios, Strabo, Pliny, Tacitus, Dion Cassius, and Herodian, who professedly or incidentally treat of the domestication of the Irish in their several ages, record nothing but traits of barbarism, incivility, and a total want of architecture, where could the Irish acquire ideas of the Egyptian and Grecian styles of building? There must be either a strange conspiracy among ancient writers to misrepresent the truth, and deceive mankind, or what is delivered by Stukely and Irish antiquaries of the wonderful proficiency of the Druids in the arts and sciences, is destitute of reality. The latter had absurd systems to support, the former stated matters of fact and notoriety. Impartiality and truth are ever found among those who have no inducement to swerve from them.

Vix equidem credar sed cum sint præmia salst

Nulla, ratam testis debet habere sidem.

"Mr. O'Conor grants our buildings in the 6th century were mean, and yet he speaks of magnificent ones many ages before, without condescending to explain the occult causes of this degradation, and at length final extinction of architecture among us."—

From every evidence supplied by antiquity, it is certain, the Irish had neither domestic edifices or religious structures of lime and sone, antecedent to the great northern invasion in the oth century.

The Oftmen who came over at that time then also embraced Christianity; and they did this, in agreement with the tenets and forms of their countrymen in England. The first structures of the Ostmen, and the first buildings with mortar in Ireland, were stone-reosed chapels for reliques.—This account our author endeavours to support, and accompanies it with a description of some of these chapels; the largest and best of which seems to be Cormac's chapel at Cashel.

Ledwich, while he rejects the tales of craft and superstition, with the pretensions of folly, is not indifferent to the honour of his country, so far as it can be supported by reason and

truth :-

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I confine myself solely (he says,) to the state of learning in in the middle and dark ages, I am the better able to pay an led attention to this interesting subject, yet, without preto think I have exhausted or even exhibited in the extent, or se erudition that others might have done. The lives and miniffaints, monastic rules, and all the suppossitious and apocryphal nat crowd the pages of Ware's writers and Harris's additions, I to the credulity and illustration of others, dwelling only on arts of solid learning worthy of rational inquiry, and which he only true grounds of national same and honour. he fifth century, at which he begins his inquiries, he can er no other adequate cause of the quick advances made rature, but the emigration of the British clergy: they om the invasions of the Anglo-Saxons. The same ac-

is given of the fixth age; and of the seventh it is said, he religious establishments in this and the preceding century, to security that letters enjoyed in our isle from the convulsions counding nations, made her the school of learning to the West-rid. But a canse, hitherto unobserved and equally powerful in tration, tended to still Ireland with learned men, and that was couragement of literature by the Roman pontiss. Hence the libes I ingenious were necessarily driven to this sile to acquire the ruts of knowlege, as papal injunctions had no force here. And the superiority of the British and Irish clergy in all their disputes teir antagonists about baptism, Easter, the tonsure, and other units and risks.

tation, though she could not escape the contagion and inselicity. of the times:

· We see (our historian remarks,) the vicissitudes of human affairs had not, for many ages, obscured our literacure, or drawn over this favoured isle the dark veil of ignorance or illiteracy. But what neither domestic convulsions, the cruel ravages of barbarians, or alldevouring time, could effect, was quickly accomplished by the effablishment of a corrupt religion. We no sooner embraced that of Rome than we lost our genius and superiority. Rien de plus funeste pour le progrès de l'esprit bumain, que la réligion mal-entendue, & poussée jusqu' à la superstition, au fanatisme, et à la tyrannic *.'

Motheim, to whom we have referred above, speaks savourably in this respect also of the Irish, "known in the eighth century by the name of Scots, as the only divines who refused to dishonour their reason by submitting it implicitly to the dictates of authority. They viewed, with contempt, the pitiful compendiums of theology, extracted from the fathers, and which the unlearned ecclesiastics of other countries accepted as oracles."

Antiquities of Devenish, in the County of Fermanagh, are very briefly noticed at the end of this effay: our antiquary feems principally to intend a correction of some mustake which has been made concerning it: he informs us, that it was 'originally a Culdean establishment, where the disciples of Saint Columba continued to exercise their piety and virtue, till overborne by superstition and an intolerant religion.'

Antient Forts and Cuffles constitute another informing article: the antient Irish, or Celtes, had no castles; their woods ferved them for camps, and their marshes for ditches. Firbolgs feem to have introduced the rath, or hill, otherwise lies, the court, or mote, all fignifying a place where they afsembled: the dun, or din, the same as the Welsh dinas, was also a kind of fort introduced by these people: but Turgesius and his Oftmen are supposed to have formed the great number of earthen forts and cattles made of lime and stone,"the remains of which are so numerous. More regular structures of this kind were raifed by the English under Edward I. and Henry II. when they conquered the country. In after-

These castles multiplied prodigiously; there were more in this illand than perhaps on an equal furface in any other part of the world .- All these are existing monuments of the inselicity of former ages, when cruel and domeitic wars convulted and defolated the island, leaving little more than one million of wretched miserable beings to occupy this beautiful and fertile country. The final fettlement

[·] Bielfeld-l'érudit. comp. tom. iii. p. 334.' D_3

Hearn's short View of the Rife and Progress

kingdom at the revolution, and the cherishing care of the ils house of Brunswick, gave us a regular government, and just
tal laws; emancipated us from commercial rellraints, and proa spirit of industry. Four millions of souls now gratefully acdge such signal blessings, and devoutly pray for a continuance
m.'

e, for the present, we take our leave of Mr. Ledwich; remarking, that, at the end of this essay, he acknow-his obligation to Colonel Hayes of Avondale, for his ous countenance of this work, and for some views here id. In the presace, he also confesses himself largely into the Reverend Dean Coote, whose public-spirited ons on several accounts appear to entitle him to the essential.

[To be continued.]

VI. A floort View of the Rife and Progress of Freedom in Mo-Europe, as connected with the Causes which led to the French olution. To which is added, a Resutation of certain erroneous inflammatory Doctrines newly propagated, for the dangerous poses of misseading the People, and subverting the established er of Society. Addressed to the Associated Friends of the ish Constitution. By Thomas Hearn, M.D. late Physician to British Fastory at Cadiz. Sec. DD. 112, 28, 6d. Richardplans of political reformation and improvement ought to follow the state of public information.

" May it not, (Dr. H. aks,) with perfect confidence, be afferted, that an instructed and enlightened nation are incapable of submitting to the gross oppressions of an arbitrary government, and that when this measure of public knowledge has been once attained, the government must either become more moderate, just, and conformable to the impressions made on the mind of the community, or a revolution must unavoidably enset; and that the degree of information of the whole people must be ever considered as the universal standard, by which the moderation, or severity, of the government must be regulated; this is the leading seasons, the great criterion, by which the operations of the ruling powers must be always determined; without it, all is consusion, all is error, and must tend to disorder and anarchy.

By this rule, the author examines the governments of Europe, and shews that the essential and radical error, which has pervaded almost all of them, has been a neglect of the most important of all considerations in the formation of a government, namely, the strong and irresissible instructed which popular opinion, comprehending in the idea the general state of information of the community at large, must have upon the steadiness, energy, and duration of such government. Having enumerated several unsuccessful efforts for freedom in the days of ignorance, he mentions, with exultation, its glorious triumph in the Netherlands over Spanish pride and tyranny:

' Feebleness and degeneracy are ever the characteristics of slaves; in this degraded state of man his faculties became suspended and enervated: that energy of mind, that soul-inspiring enthusiasm which sires the breast of the patriot, and urges him on to acts of public beneficence, cannot be felt by the wretch who is a tyrant's tool, and groans in servitude.

'However, for the honour of human nature, we must not omit to mention the noble, the immortal struggle of the Netherlands. The haughty, the imperious Philip was forced to swallow the bitter draught, and was taught to know, that neither the armed hosts of extensive empire, nor the united treasures of two hemispheres, could subdue the hardy minds and undaunted valour of what may be called a few naked schermen: ashamed and abashed, he was obliged to retire from the inglorious contest, and left to posterity this great, this awful lesson, that whilst conquerors and tyrants perish and pass away from the records of time, the public soul of freedom is invincible and immortal.'

This brief historical sketch is closed with the following judi-

Thus it is that civil and political establishments must always keep pace with the illumination of the public mind, and change according to the variations of the state of man. Power has been constantly conferred by, and wrested from, the people, and as constantly abused. Uncontroused authority seems to have a baneful influence on the human heart, and sew are the examples of permanent virtue.

moderation,

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cion, in that dangerous station. The history of mankind, and crience of ages, strongly enforce a belief that the multitude are le of governing themselves, and hence are reduced to the ness considered that important trust, which cannot be exercised by de, to the virtue of one, or of a few; this delegation cannot, or, nately for mankind, has not hitherto been conferred, without up at the same time such a proportion of power as precludes a try of revoking the grant; should the delegate become corrupt trary, he is already possessed of the means of supporting his try by usurpation; for authority maintained against the consent whole body of the people is virtually usurpation; and against the, when established by military force, there is no remedy, no, other than insurrection.

, other than infurrection.
though the truth of this proposition cannot be denied, and that
people have a right to oppose a similar state of tyrauny, it must
essed that the experiment has been temerimes satal, is always

ous, and most frequently unsuccessful.

ch nearly has been the state of all the nations on the Continent, we excepted; the people had not, from almost time immemorial, admitted to that rank and importance which their great preance entitled them to in the scale of public assairs; delpised and ected by that power, which they themselves had armed for lesence and security, they were abandoned to all the insults of mg pride and the depredations of insatiable squanderers; but matural perversion of the order of things must have its limits, y of retribution was to come, when the irresssible advancement atture and science was to make the people sensible of the enormity

morance which was so indispensably necessary to the existence and exercise of despotic power, when the dissussion of knowledge became more universal, and extended to all ranks of the community, the soldier himself perceived that it was no longer his interest to form part of a body which militated against public freedom, and had been hisherto found inimical to the rights of the people; at length he became sensible that his military appointment was neither irreconcileable with the prior claims of social duty, nor opposite to his obligations as a citizen; and considered the trade of war, as it had been carried on, to be no other than an artful system, established on the ruins of seudal barbarity, formed for the purposes of ambition, the support of tyrants, and the destruction of his fellow-creatures.

 Hence it is evident, that governments must become more equitable and mild, according to the progress of knowledge and a more enlightened state of civil society. An ignorant and unlettered people can patiently submit to the most outrageous acts of violence and oppression, and sleep over their chains with an indifference bordering on brutal flupidity; the most fertile and favoured regions of the earth, where freedom, joined hand in hand with liberal knowledge, had once brought forth, nurtured, and matured, the faculties of man, where genius smiled, and civil life had gained its ultimate perfection, where polithed Greece had reared the empire of refinement and of reason, have for ages languished in decay and hopeless servitude, and bend beneath the iron sway of haughty Ottoman; the plains, where Tyre and Carthage flood, are now the prev of rude barbarians, and the fport of ruffian power; the peaceful Hindoo has, from the remotest time, fubmitted calmly to the yoke of fuccessive tyrants, and feems to have taken no interest in the scenes of rapine and slaughter that constantly surrounded him: the instuence of a mild climate, an abundant foil, his habits of life, religion, and rigid temperance, together with his contented ignorance, all contribute to enervate his mind, and render him incapable of refistance; yet it would not feem unreasonable to believe, that all these physical and moral causes would not alone be fufficient to retain him in that state of thameful humiliation, were his mind enlightened; were the art of reasoning known in his country; were feminaries, colleges, universities, academies of science and belles lettres, libraries, and a public education established, it may be prefumed that even the Hindoo himself would be routed from his lethargic inaction, and stand forth in bold vindication of the rights of humanity.'

After these general observations, Dr. H. proceeds to the consideration of the present state of politics in Europe. The cause of the downfall of the French monarchy, in his opinion, was, that the government did not learn, from the barbarous policy of other despotic governments, that, in order to secure permanency to usurpation, and uncontroused dominion over the persons and property of the people, it was necessary to preserve the same arbitrary influence over their intellects.

With respect to the general principles of government, though Dr. H. strenuously opposes the method of reforming government

vernment by referring all redress of grievances to elementary affemblies of the whole mass of the people; and is of opinion that Mr. Paine's republican system (many parts of which he distinctly examines,) cannot be successfully carried into effect, except where the mass of the people possess extraordinary degrees of wisdom and virtue; yet he admits that men are, or should be, politically equal, and are entitled to the protection and participated advantages of that society of which they are members.

Concerning privileged orders, his opinion is thus expressed:

Though I find myself obliged to differ with Mr. P—e in some points, I must confess that his ideas concerning the hereditary nobility, such as it is in many countries in Europe, and the influence so inevitably connected therewith, appear to me to merit the particular attention of wise governments; the entailing the honours conferred on a deserving and distinguished citizen, on his undeserving and profligate posterity, takes off that stimulus which excites to public virtue and acts of heroism, and probably has a tendency to debilitate and enervate the human mind—the privileges annexed to that high rank may become dangerous in some forms of government; and, in all, aristocratical ascendancy should be guarded against by some powerful counterpoise.'

On the subject of reform, Dr. H. is an enemy to precipitate and violent innovations, and thinks it unreasonable that the present race should be sacrificed for the convenience of posterity; but he acknowleges that modern governments abound with absurdities and abuses, and that the growth of general knowlege and rational inquiry has been such, as will oblige the ruling powers to lower their tone, and to relax their severity. At the same time that he strongly expresses his disapprobation of the method in which political renovation has of late been attempted in France, he has the candour to own that it would not be inconsistent with the dignity of the English government, to borrow from the French what may be applied to public utility, and to learn wisdom from their extravagance:

If to remove those baneful distinctions which embitter all the sweets of society, and to unite the subjects of a great empire under the common banner of Christian love and indiscriminate protection—if to blot out for ever the memory of those unhappy seuds, which have divided them into sactions, and were the cause why men of the most liberal principles were almost obliged to consider each other with an eye of discontent and jealousy—if to grant an equal participation of the advantages of an unrivalled and envied constitution to all descriptions of men, who discharge the duties of good citizens and loyal subjects, and who look up with an eye of considence to the liberality of the times and the generosity of their rulers—if to make it the interest as well as duty of every individual to respect, revere, and defend a constitution from the advantages he may obtain by its protection and justice, and not tempt him to curse it as a partial, deprayed, and

ablard lystem of intrigue and monopoly—if to encourage all denominations of Christians, without distinction of sect, to join in the same cause of cultivating philanthropy and social affection, and of thanks and gratitude to that enlightened country, which united all the rights of conscience with the only true rights of man—if, I say, some such wise, some such prudent plan of conciliation be not adopted, no im-

provement can be attempted.

"This should be the first preliminary step towards reform, as without it no reform can be effectual, just, or permanent; the nation, which is disunited by religious animosity, is ever exposed to faction, as containing within itself the seeds of discontent and political hatred. In a country thus circumstanced, it would be imprudent, it would be madness, to agitate the already unorganized mass of the people by annovations or reforms. Where men cannot possibly be brought to agree about their common interests—where the advantages of one party necessarily include the oppression of others, the government cannot, without danger, relax those springs so necessary for the prefervation of public peace and civil order.

"Unhappy the people who are divided amongst themselves, and fill more unhappy the government which is reduced to the necessity of somenting domestic broils, in order to preserve its instruce—where the causes of acrimony and discontent are suffered to exist in the state, it becomes the sport of every wind; the smallest spark excited by accidental disgust is sufficient to blow up the torch of sedition, and rouse a stame which can be extinguished only by shedding the blood of thou-

fands.'

Abounding as this pamphlet certainly does with fentiments of freedom, we were surprized to find in it an affertion, that the promulgation of an opinion, acknowleged to be perfectly indifferent in itself, (namely, " that the succession to thrones and empires does not so much depend on old-fashioned statutes. the jargon of the law, or the assumed authority of precedent, as upon the fovereign voice of the elementary affemblies of the nation convened, and conflituting the personal social compact,") should, in a just, moderate, and well-regulated government, be confidered as wanton, inflammatory, and feditious. Such doctrines are certainly contrary to the general spirit of this liberal pamphlet, and even to its express language. The consent and approbation of the people the author afferts to be the most effential point, the indispensable condition, on which the Kings of England have held their high office; and again, In the tenure and hereditary succession of the crown of England, must be ever comprehended the idea of the consent and approbation of the community, which, though not formally, yet virtually implies the election of the people.' Can it, then, ever be teditious for free citizens to affert those principles, to which the British constitution itself owes its existence?

In reviewing the first two volumes of these travels *, we gave some account of the author, and offered our reasons for recommending his publication as authentic. The volume now before us concludes the work. It contains an account of two voyages; the first, toward the South Pole, in the years 1773, and 1774; (for the title page is incorrect;) the second, to-

ward the North Pole in 1776.

The first voyage was undertaken by order of the French government, for the purpose of making discoveries in the South Seas. In this expedition, M. de Pagés had no commission on board the ship, but was invested with the charge of whatever service on shore the circumstances of the discoverers might require. His motive for accepting this charge was the hope of viewing human nature in 'a state hitherto undisclosed to the eyes, and unperverted by the notions, of civilized nations.' Accordingly, on the arrival of the ship at the Cape of Good Hope, he prepared to make an excursion into the country of the Hotatentots, but was obliged to abandon his plan, for the following reasons:

 The persons, to whom I applied for such previous information as was necessary to my entering on the expedition, seemed to look through a magnifier at every obstacle in my way; the ordinary method of confidering undertakings that deviate from the beaten track of common experience. Befides, the Captain of the ship urged many reasons to distuade me from the execution of my plan, - reasons nevertheless, which went upon the supposition of such a strange and improbable coincidence of circumitances as might militate against any human project whatever. I chose therefore to sacrifice to my duty all that interesting knowledge which I have no doubt might have been obtained on this occasion without the smallest inconvenience to the main object of our yoyage. From this moment every flattering profpect with which I had fet out on this service in a great measure vanished; and I saw with sincere concern how little I could count on those intellectual attainments I hoped to have derived from my having a share in the expedition.'

After this honest and mortifying confession on the part of M. de Pagés, no candid reader will expect from him such variety of amusing incidents and instructive observations as voyages of discovery often assord:—but although he had no opportunity of visiting the country of the Hottentots, he gives the

[.] See the Review for May 1791, art. 3:

⁺ The date, page 2, is alto an error or the press.

best account of their manners that he could obtain from report; and particularly with respect to their language, (which he heard daily at the Cape,) he makes the following curious remark:

The language of the Hottemots is the most singular I have ever met with. Besides innumerable gutturals, it contains many sounds formed by pressing the tongue in a bent state against the palate. It would perhaps be difficult to render what I mean better understood than by the word clop, or clep; a sound which seems to precede the main expression, and is repeated once or twice, according as the object to which it is applied is more or less important. I thought, however, I could perceive that this initial slap of the tongue was only introductory to a primitive or original word. This uncouth sound, I observed, preceded likewise their numerals, 1, 2, 3, &c.'

There is more of fancy than of conviction in the latter part of this observation; it being scarcely credible that a man, in merely hearing a language, without understanding it, should distinguish radical from derivative words, or so exactly discover the use of a particle of sound. It serves, however, to shew the author's laudable attention to whatever he thought worthy of notice.

We hope our readers will not blame us for inferting the following extract, because it relates a fact, unconnected indeed with the voyage, but which ought, for the honour of human nature, to be made as public as possible, and to which the author says

I should have found it dissicult to give credit, had it not happened at this place the evening before my arrival; and if, besides the public notoriety of the fact, I had not been an eye-witness of those vehement emotions of sympathy, blended with admiration, which it had justly

excited in the mind of every individual at the Cape.

· A violent gale of wind fetting in from north north west, a vessel in the road dragged her anchors, was forced upon the rocks and bulged; and while the greater part of the crew fell an immediate facrifice to the waves, the remainder were feen from the shore struggling for their lives by clinging to different pieces of the wreck. The fea ran dreadfully high, and broke over the failors with fuch amazing fury, that no boat whatever would venture off to their assistance. Mean-while a planter, considerably advanced in life, had come from his farm to be a spectator of the shipwreck; his heart was melted at the fight of the unhappy feamen; but knowing the bold and enterprizing spirit of his horse, and his particular excellence as a swimmer, he inflantly determined to make a desperate effort for their deliverance. He alighted and blew a little brandy into his horse's nostrils, when again teating himself sirm in his saddle, he instantly rushed into the midst of the breakers. At first both disappeared; but it was not long before they sloated on the surface, and swam to the wreck; when taking with him two men, each of whom held by one of his boots, he brought them fafe to shore. This perilous experiment he repeated no teldomer than feven times, and laved fourteen lives to the public;

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his return the eighth time, his horse being much satigued, eeting a most formidable wave, he lost his balance, and was elmed in a moment. The horse swam safe to land, but his rider, alas, was no more.' pp. 32, and seq.

cannot but lament that M. de Pagés has omitted to ine name of the person who personned this astonishing act oism. How sew have merited so well as this man the

tion, vire immertali!

the 11th of July, the ship left the Cape, and, on the f August, arrived at the isle of France; where, and in and of Bourbon, two months were employed in taking in provisions, and in repairing some damage which the ship sfered in a violent storm.

ring his stay in these parts, M. de Pagés observed,

hat both population and the productions of the foil in the isle of on are, in a surprising degree, superior to those of the isle of . An appearance so little expected induced me to make some into its cause; and after informing myself respecting the successforded to both settlements by the mother country, I consider sate fresh proof of one of my old maxims, that simplicity ners, and the diligent cultivation of the foil, form the only solid a shourishing population. These are the only arts known to ppy Bourbonnois: whereas the prevalence of vanity and intrigue life of France has damped its prosperity, and greatly retarded advantages expected to flow from this island to our possessions.

With respect to the plan for the voyage now under consideration, the author says,

"We resolved to proceed East until we should reach the latitude of 38° or 40° with the longitude of 35° or 37°. in search of some land supposed to have been visited by M. de Gonneville. But in the event of making no such discovery, we meant to proceed to latitude 50° and as nearly as possible to the place where the Eagle and Mary quitted this parallel, and then to pursue the track of those ships east-ward."

This plan was accordingly pursued until the 14th of December, when land was discovered, consisting of two large and some smaller islands; one of the sormer was named Isle de Remaion, and the other Isle de Croy. From the 14th of December, the ships continued to cruize about the several coasts of these islands, until the 6th of January 1774, when a party landed on the Isle de Reunion, and took possession of it as a new discovery. This island lies in lat. 48° 21" S. and 66° 47" East long. from Paris: the variation of the needle being 30° always toward the South West. This island contains a small port fronting the South East, and a rivulet of very good water; the soil produces grass seemingly of a rich quality, but no trees; nor were there any vestiges of a human habitation.

On the 18th of January (says our author,) we quitted our cruize, which, from the extreme caution of the commander, we had continued without any voluntary deviation for the space of thirty days; and now set sail for the island of Madagascar.'

It is not surprizing that a man, so ardent in enterprize, and so spirited in exertion, as our author seems to be, and who wished to do so much, should be discontented at seeing so little done: but candor forbids us to acquiesce in the oblique censure of the commander, which is contained in the last citation, unless we were more fully acquainted with his instructions. If he duly pursued these with respect to the time and station of his cruize, he did his duty; and he would have been blameable, as a professional man, if he had even successfully exceeded his or-After all, this expedition ought not to be confidered as useless or unimportant; for, on examining the charts of other voyages, we do not find the exact course of these French ships laid down in any of them. A certain part of the ocean hitherto unknown has therefore been carefully explored; and to have discovered and ascertained the position of a single island, asfording a safe harbour and fresh water in those unfrequented

ages performed by the English under the present reign, they will find a clear and compendious account of it in the introduction to Cooke's second voyage published in 1777.

M. de Pagés' Travels round the World, Vol. III.

nay prevent the loss, or remedy the distress, of future har-

their arrival at Madagascar, the author says,

y chief object was to study the manners and principles of action people, whose great population and original settlement, prostremely ancient, seemed to militate with the notion of sindapplicity of character in their present circumstances. Some faint
of religion, much superstition, no public mode of religious
p, gleams of goodness, alternate examples of cowardice and
e, a strong propensity to suspicion, the usual mark of treachery;
in short in stat contradiction to every thing like delicacy of
ent and good merals among other men, are particulars which,
well deserve some investigation.

this purpose, M. de Pagés lest the ship, and went to rea village at some distance from the port, and entirely rom the company of Europeans. Here, principally, he ted the materials of the account which he gives of the s; and which, though compendious, cannot but be cuand satisfactory, because it is given by a man who relates he actually saw, and whose mind was habituated to oband to resect.

e passage from Madagascar to Brest affording no remarkccurrences, we shall now proceed to the consideration of uthor's voyage toward the North Pole; the objects of may be briefly stated in his own words: eould find no better method of performing it than by taking his passage on board a Dutch vessel bound to Spitzbergen. On the 16th of April 1776, the ship sailed from the Texel, and on the 16th of May was a little way North of 81°, the highest latitude which she reached:

* Being now (fays the author,) less than an hundred and eighty leagues from the pole, the idea of so small a distance served effectually to awaken my curiosity. Had I been able to inspire my fellow-voyagers with sentiments similar to my own, the winds and currents which at this moment carried us fast towards the pole, a region hitterto deemed inaccessible to the eye of mortals, would have been saluted with acclamations of joy. This quarter however is not the most eligible for such an enterprize; here the sea lying in the vicinity of those banks of ice, so frequent a little further to the west, is much too contined. Nevertheless, when I consider the very changeable nature of the shoals under whatever form, even in their most crowded and compact state; their constant changes and concussions which break and detach them from one another, and the various expedients that may be employed for freeing the ship from consinement, as well as for obviating impending danger, I am far from viewing a voyage to the pole as a chimerical idea.

From this passage, it appears that the master of the Dutch vessel was determined to mind his own business only, and by no means to adopt any of our author's ardor for discovery. The remainder of the book, therefore, contains little more than the usual occurrences of a whaling voyage in the North seas:—but whoever has not perused a recital of these occurrences in some other work, will find them here related in a manner equally clear and interesting.

We shall conclude this article by apprizing our readers of some philosophical and nautical topics, on which M. de Pagés, in different parts of this volume, has given his observations and opinion. The most material of these will be sound in the

following extracts:

I had been anxious to ascertain by comparison, whether sea water contains salt in greater quantity under the torrid than under the other zones; and my experiments on this subject served to shew, contrary to what I expected, that sea water is impregnated with salt in less quantity within than without the tropics.

These experiments were made on a hundred pounds of sea water, taken at the depth of ten fathoms, and weighed in

water scales.

M de Pagés has given a table of these experiments, from which it appears that 100 lb. of sea water in 46° 12" S. lat. gave 4½ lb. of salt, and in 1° 16" only 3½ lb.; and that in 74° N. lat. it gave 4½ lb. and in 4° 22" only 3½ lb. these being the highest and lowest latitudes in which the experiments were made, and also the greatest and least quantities of salt.

REV. MAY 1793. E With

M. de Pagés' Travels round the World, Vol. 111.

ith respect to ascertaining the longitude, the author fays. fun-rifing we saw the table of the Cape; and I found from earing of the land that our longitude, as observed by the ameter, erred only about two leagues; while the error of hip's reckoning was no less than fifty-one leagues East. observations with the megameter were much more accuthan those taken with the sextant.' p. 7. On their arrival e Isle of France, ' the error of the ship's reckoning with reto longitude was thirty-four leagues and a half westward, ft that of the timekeeper (Berthoud's) was next to nothing. n our examination of our timekeeper here and at Fallewe found it had gained only one minute twenty-four fes in the space of an bundred and one days." n the 11th of August 1773, in 34° 48". S. lat. and 569 E. long. from Paris, 'a comet was feen from the ship at past fix in the evening, in the West North West, at elevation of 4°. The tail was towards the zenith, and equently in opposition to the sun, which was three quarters n hour below the horizon.' The infrequent appearance of ets being the principal reason of our knowing to little of nature, motion, and magnitude, we think it may be of rtance to science to make the appearance of any of these es, in any part of the world, as generally known as possible. e know not if the following hypothelis relative to the cligan to appear between the banks.' Ever fince we entered regions less occupied by the ice, and confequently exposing a greater surface of water, the harometer, even in our longest intervals of fine weather, never rose so high as where the ice was more universal, though accompanied with weather much less serene; an appearance which I regard as almost conclusive of the specific atmosphere of the ice.' p. 264.

If this last publication contain neither such novelty of matter, nor such variety of incident, as the two former volumes; yet it is more scientific, and is by no means an unamusing work.

The translation is sufficiently faithful, and the language is easy, clear, and generally correct.

A second edition of the First and Second volumes of this translation of the Travels of M. de Pagés has just made its appearance. The title page assures us that, in this edition, the work is corrected and enlarged."

ART. VIII. Iphigenia in Tauris. A Tragedy, written originally in German by J. W. von Geëthe. 8vo. pp. 126. 4s. fewed. Printed at Norwich; fold by Johnson, London. 1793.

As in religion, so in writing, it frequently happens that men admire that which they do not chuse to imitate. The dignified simplicity of the ancient Greek tragedians is, in modern times, much more frequently applauded by critics than imitated by poets. If it be admitted, as some apology for this inconfishency, that these writers carried their fondness for fimplicity fo far as in some measure to destroy the interesting effect of their drama; it must be owned, on the other hand, that the modern practice of accumulating incidents, fentiments, and characters, and of loading every part of a tragedy with ornamented diction, deviates as widely, in the contrary extreme, from the true principles of taste. The due medium would perhaps be best attained, not by abandoning altogether these ancient models, but by keeping them before us as successful attempts on which it is our business to improve, rather than as finished productions of which we are only to be servile copyifts.

This appears to have been the light in which the German poet Goëthe confiders the writings of the ancients; at leaft, this is the use that he has made of the Greek tragedians in the dramatic performance, an English translation of which is now presented to the public. The piece appears to be an attempt to improve on these great masters, without departing, farther than was deemed necessary, from the general plan and charac-

ter of the Greek tragedies; and, in the translation, the author's meaning and spirit are reflected with such clearness and strength, that the English reader will be at no loss to judge of the degree of success with which Goëthe has executed his design. The translator has not given any preface, nor any guide by which we might even guess at his name.

In order to afford our readers an easy opportunity of comparing the plot of this play with that of Euripides, which bears the same title, and is sounded on the same story, we shall begin

with giving a brief furmary of each.

Iphigenia, having been rescued by the power of Diana from the facrificial knife, to which she had been doomed by her father in Aulis, became the priestess of her temple in lauris, and had the charge of the inhuman rites by which those strangers, who were seized on the coast, were sacrificed to this goddess. Orestes, her brother, who, after he had killed his mother, was haunted by the Furies, was commanded by Apollo, as an atonement for his crime, to visit the thrine of Diana in Tauris, to bear away from the temple the flatue of the goddess, and to convey it to Athens. At the commencement of the play of Euripides, Orcsies, with his triend Pylades, land in Tauris; and, while Iphigenia is relating to her attendants the story of her griefs, she is informed by a herdsman of the arrival and ferzure of the Grecian strangers. The prisoners being brought to the temple, Oreiles, at the request of Iphigenia, relates the fate of Troy, and of the Grecian chiefs, but conceals his own flory. Iphigenia proposes to Orestes, as the condition of his escape, that he should bear a letter for her to Greece, while Pylades should remain to pay the debt of piety to Diana. After a struggle of friendship, Orestes accepts this fatal Iphigenia, in communicating the letter to Pylades, discovers herielf; and a pathetic conversation passes between her and Orettes. To free her brother from his toils, Iphigenia undertakes to affift him in executing the command of Apollo. In order to delay the facrifice, she advises Orestes to say that he fled from Argos after having murdered his mother, that it might become necessary for the polluted victim to pass through fundry preparatory luftrations. This pretext is admitted by Thoas the king; and Iphigenia, under pretence of performing an ablution on the image, carries it to the sea-side. Here the Greeks are prepared to receive her; and, after an alarming delay, occasioned by adverse winds, they bear away their rrize; while, in the mean time, Minerva appears to Thoas, to reconcile him to his lots. - Such is the outline of the lphigenia in Tauris of Euripides.

In the tragedy of Goëthe, the passion of love is introduced by representing Thoas as disposed to make aphigenia the partner of his throne; and the plot opens with a conversation between Arkas, a Taurian chief, and Iphigenia, in which the latter is entreated to listen to the king's proposal. In an interview with Thoas, Iphigenia discovers to him her descent, and relates the history of her family, but resures to become his queen. Thoas then commands the renewal of the ancient bloody rites on two strangers just sound on the coast. The two strangers, Pylades and Orestes, are come to Tauris to execute the mandate of the oracle, whose answer was,

When thy pious hand from Tauris:

the unwilling inmate brings of the ancient fanctuary,

44 and the fifter of my care

to the Grecian shore conveys, then thy curse shall terminate."

Iphigenia, being informed of the capture, visits the grove where the prisoners are confined, and learns from Pylades, as an unknown Greek, the history of the Grecian chiefs, but receives a fictitious tale concerning himself and his companion. In a subsequent interview with Orestes, they mutually discover their true story. Orestes abandons himself to despair and madness, till, recalled to reason by his friend and his sister, he finds the burthen of his curse removed, and triumphs in his deliver-The destined sacrifice having been by these circumflances delayed, Arkas, in the name of the king, urges the immediate celebration of the rites:-but Iphigenia demands a farther delay, while the bears the statue of the Goddess to the shore, to purify it by lustration, from the profanation which the vifit of the guilty strangers had occasioned. Pylades entreats her to feize this opportunity of affishing him to fulfil the oracle, by conveying away the statue of the Goddess. She consents, and resolves: but scruples of honour and gratitude rife in her mind; and, on an interview with Thoas, after a violent struggle between apprehension and virtue, she determines to abandon the plan of deceit, and, disclosing the whole truth, casts herself and her friends on the king's generosity and humanity. The noble design succeeds. Orestes and his companions, who were approaching to feize the statue, are pardoned, and permitted to fulfil the oracle, by bearing away, not the statue of Diana, but her priestess, the unwilling inmate of the ancient fanctuary."

On comparing these two plots, it will appear that they are very different from each other, and that the latter is, in several material respects, superior to the former. The alterations

Goëthe's Ipbigenia in Tauris. A Tragedy.

e in the incidents contribute much toward the improvement e characters. The Iphigenia of Goëthe is certainly a h more amiable and meritorious character than that of pides. With all the domestic affections of the latter, the illes, inflead of craft and cunning, a generous dildain of d, a purity of principle, an ardent love of honour and h, and a deep fenfe of gratitude, which prompt her to haevery thing rather than submit to the meannels of falle-The fecret contrivances of the play are, with great priety, thrown into the hands of Pylades; who, throughthe piece, appears, like Ulyfles, calm, cautious, and cun-If the struggle of friendship between Orestes and Pys, which is one of the most pleasing scenes in the Greek edy, be wanting, the defect is in some measure supplied by interesting narrative-conversation between these friends; the character of Orestes, which is distinguished by sincerity ardor, is wonderfully heightened, as well as rendered more fonant to his previous condition and state of mind, by makthe discovery of Iphigenia lead him into phrenzy and mads, rather than into the ordinary expressions of tenderness, thall extract a part of this animated and highly-finished

· Iph. - Ye gods, remove illusion from his eye, least this bright instant of the utmost joy and yet the dagger pierc'd her.—Mother, come, and place a troop of furies round thy children: they'll have a welcome fight to fmile upon, the last, most horrible, that shall befall us.

Nor hate, nor grin revenge hath whet the poignard; but a fond fister shall be forc'd to use it.—

Weep not, thou hast no crimes upon thy soul.

From infancy I have not known such love as I could feel for thee. But, spare me not, lift, lift the glittering seel, in kindness make an outlet for the boiling streams within.

* [Falls exhaufted upon the ground.

'Ipb.—Alone I cannot bear this blifs and woe. Where art thou, Pylades, to lend me help?

· [Retires in search of him.

· Orestes, rifing from bis swoon. 'Another—grant me yet from Lethe's wave one more reviving cup of cool refreshmentsoon shall these dregs of life he rinc'd away by calm oblivion's flood. To you, ye shades, to your eternal mists, eternal stillness, a perfecuted wretch would fly for refuge. I hear the whispering of your twilight groves: round their new guest your cloudy forms assemble. What lofty band in fweet communion met, like a collected family of princes, come gliding hither, every fex and age, yet all of godlike port in peaceful union.
'Tis they, 'tis they! my ancestors—With Atreus Thyestes walks in confidential converse, the children fmiling hang upon their steps. And does not enmity pervade your dwellings does vengeance wither with the light of daythen I am welcome, and may hope to join your folemn train, may bid you, hail! my fathers, Orestes-of your race the last-arrives; He reap'd the harvest that ye sow'd of curses. But here all burdens are more light to bear. Admit him of your circle. Thee, Thyestes, thee, Atreus, I respect: here hate expires. Show me my father, whom I faw on earth but once—Does he accompany my mother, and link his arm in her's who plann'd his death? and may not I approach her-fay, behold thy fon, behold your fon-and they will greet me. On earth a falutation foreran murder among the fons of ancient Tantalus; after the night of death their joys begin. Ye welcome me, receive me in your band, now guide me to the venerable form of him, who fat in council with the gods.

Goëthe's Iphigenia in Tauris. A Tragedy.

e feem to shudder and avert your looks.

Vhat! have the mighty fasten'd cruel torment
ith brazen fetters to the hero's breast?

[Iphigenia and Pylades enter.
and are ye come already? Welcome, fifter.
ome god of mercy fend our only remnant,
llectra, hither with a gentle arrow!
pity thee, my friend - my bapless friend.
lome, come with me to Pluto's throne—'tis fitting
hat the new guests falute their gloomy host.

Iphigenia, Orefles, and Pylades.

Iph.—Twin-born of Jove, who thro' the skiey wast onduct the lovely lights of day and night, he folace of mankind, forbid to shine in the departed, by your mutual fondness pok on a brother's and a sister's woe. hou lov'st thy gentle brother, O Diana, nore than all things above, on earth, below, and ever turn'st in silent contemplation by virgin face to his eternal light. In or my only, late-found, dear Orestes in the dark wilderness of madness rove; but if thy will, when thou dids hide me here, enow sulfill'd; if thou, thro' him to me, tro' me to him, intendest bounteous aid; belose him from the setters of the curse, and we forego the precious hour of slight.

Goethe's Iphigenia in Tauris. A Tragedy.

and close behind them the far-thundering doors of Tartarus. The earth steams welcome fragrance, inviting me upon its smiling brim to chace the joys of life and meeds of virtue.

The reader will perceive that the strong seelings, both of the violent and of the tender kind, which belong to this scene, are expressed with suitable energy, and often in those "words of fire" which prove that both the author and the translator are in no inconsiderable degree possessed of the true spirit, and masters of the appropriate language, of poetry. In justification of this opinion we refer particularly to the lines, Childless and guiltless, &c. to Iphigenia's beautiful apostrophe to Apollo and Diana; Twin-born, &c. and to that passage, so sublimely expessive of a terrisic image: I hear the fleet Eumenides, &c.—We add the following picture of horror in the mind of Orestes:

· Orest. to Ipbig .- Would I could tell thee also of his death ! How from his mother's gaping wounds arole her haughty spirit, and with angry yell fkriek'd to the ancient daughters of the night "Seize on this parricide, this son of guilt,
and with implacable revenge pursue him." They heard her voice; they roll'd their hollow eyes, like famisht eagles, on their destin'd prey; in their dark dens they stir'd; their sad companions' Doubt and Remorfe from filent corners stole with knitted hands to earth from their loofe locks dispersing pitchy damps of Acheron .-Now ceaseless contemplation of the past rolls in black gyres around his haunted brow .-The fiends long-banisht from the beauteous earth renew their all-deforming range with him, pursue his rovings, hang upon his step, and only flop to add redoubled horror to the black hour they overtake his flight.'

It would not be difficult to quote many other passages, in which poetical images and figures are used with peculiarly happy effect: we select the following detached lines.

oreft.— thou, my friend, my first companion, like a buttersty round a dark slower, wouldst play and sport about me, transfuse thy cheerfulness into my bosom, make me forget the sorrows of my soul, and bask with thee in youth's delightful sunshine.'—

' Ipb. — — They live! Lend me, thou golden sun, thy fairest beams to lay in gratitude before Jove's throne—for I am poor and mute.'——

Goëthe's Iphigenia in Tauris. A Tragedy.

• Ipb.—Uncertainty, with many folded wing, hides in ill-boding gloom my anxious head.'——

58

After the manner of the ancient tragedians, moral reflections and fentiments are frequently and pertinently introduced: for example;

Iph.—Merely to breathe in freedom is not life. Is it to live—around this holy fpot like ghosts around their graves, to wander wailing? Is it a life of conscious happiness, when all our hours are dream'd away in vain, and only bring us nearer those dim days, which on the dull oblivious shore of Lethe the band of the departed moan away. A useless life is but an early death.'——

A lie ficts not the foul at liberty, nor comforts like a truely fooken word, but it torments the breast that forges it, returning, like the dart which gods divert to wound the archer.

We must farther remark, as a material circumstance in which this play excels the Iphigenia in Tauris of Euripides, that, by changing the response of the oracle from a direct and explicit into an ambiguous order, the poet has enabled himself to render the catastrophe more pleasing, and to improve the moral effect of the piece. Instead of exhibiting an example of fraud and plunder committed under the sanction of one God, and justified by the express authority of another, it presents a pattern of firm and resolute honesty, by which the reader is taught the superiority of openness and generosity over crast and meanness.

The author has not imitated the Greek chorus, but, in its flead, has put into the mouth of Iphigenia, hymns, arifing out of the incidents, and written in an elevated strain of poetry. One of these, an ancient household song, prophetic of the sate of the family, sung by the Parcæ when Tantalus was hurled from his throne, is particularly excellent: but for this we must refer to the poem itself. The translator has rendered these hymns in melodious numbers, without the incongruous incumbrance of rhyme.

On the whole, we do not hesitate to give it as our opinion, that Goëthe's Iphigenia in Tauris is superior to that of Euripides. Goëthe, indeed, appears to have made Sophocles, rather than Euripides, his model; and, among all the moderns, perhaps no one has more successfully imitated that great master.

We

We must not omit to mention the happy facility with which the translator passes from the higher diction of poetry to the more easy and familiar language of dialogue.—In a few instances, this has led him into a neglect of melody in the versistance cation, as in the following passage:

heard thy mild prayers, so that she forgoes without a sign of wrath the ancient offering?

We observe also some novelty in the use of words; as in the following instances:

When on my hapless bough the curse of fate blasting alit;

and

So wont to murder in the house of Pelops.'

In one instance, either the author or the translator appears to have fallen into some degree of unintelligibility:

nor obscure the obvious traces of our forefathers' earthly drudgery; but chase their shadows, which like gods adorn a mountain summit on a golden cloud.

These trisling blemishes are scarcely worth notice in a work that abounds with excellencies, which reslect much honour on the genius and judgment both of the author and the translator; and which, we think, the more they are examined, will be the more admired.

The translation is illustrated by many pertinent references to similar passages in the Greek tragedians; for which the reader is indebted to the translator.

It is a peculiarity in the manner of printing this tragedy, which may deferve to be mentioned, that the editor has not followed the usual practice of beginning every line with a capital, but has used capitals only, as in prose, for proper names and at the beginning of sentences.

ART. IX. Strictures upon "Primitive Christianity, by the Rev. Dr. Knowles, Probendary of Ely;" as also, upon the Theological and Polemical Writings of the Right Rev. the Lord Bishop of St. David's, the Rev. Dr. Priestley, and the late Rev. Mr. Badcock. By James Edward Hamilton, Esq. 8vo. 2 Vols. pp. 373, and 524. 135. Boards. Johnson.

PARTICULARLY to notice the novelties contained in these very singular strictures, would carry us to a length altogether incompatible with our numerous engagements. Mr. Hamilton's religion is abundantly more outré than his politics: (see his Observations on Mr. Burke's Resections, with an ac-

count of them, M. R. New Series, vol. v. p. 327.) his faith we believe to be perfectly unique; nor has any writer, with whom we are acquainted, more rigoroully observed the maxim, nullius jurare in verba magistri. Respected authorities he rejects with contempt; he annihilates, at pleasure, apostles and primitive fathers; and he ridicules the belief of the moderns in their According to him, the Bishop of St. David's, Dr. Knowles, Dr. Prieftley, Mr. Gibbon, and Mr. Badcock, are very superficial writers; those books, which pass for the works of the fathers of the two first centuries, are unquestionably spurious; and the writings of the learned of the present century, which undertake to exhibit an account of the herefies of the primitive church, are replete with the most egregious blunders. Yet, notwithstanding the grande supercilium with which he treats modern Christian divines*, he graciously condescends to acknowlege that ' Lardner has fairly laid before the reader the fentiments of the ancients:' but this compliment, contained in the first volume, he entirely destroys in the second, contemptuoufly calling Lardner's collections, 'hear fays.' (Vol. ii. p. 191.)

Our author not only modestly reframs from arrogating to himself more learning than is possessed by the generality of learned men, but also acknowleges himself to be but impersectly acquainted with the writings of the fathers: how, on this ground, he can justify the positiveness as well as the novelty of

his affertions, we shall not stay to inquire.

Mr. Hamilton is of no modern fect. He professes himself an Ebionite, and prefaces his strictures with informing us, that the object of his present publication, as also of an Harmony to the Evangelists, which he is preparing to lay before the public, is to shew that Jesus was not the Messiah or Christ, and that those writings which go under the appellation of the New Testament are all spurious or adulterated, and have no pretensions whatever to be entitled the word of God, and that Christianity in every form, as being sounded upon these writings, is a sophistication of the religion taught by Jesus and his messengers.

Strongly as all this favours of Deism, Mr. Hamilton would be much offended by the imputation; for know, gentle reader!

Gibbon predicates rationality of some of them. I think after this he should not be deemed a sceptic. Strictures, vol. ii. p. 190.

This shews that the rabble in those days were better judges of sound divinity than the moit learned of the moderns. Vol. ii. p. 138.

† Harmony is the sense of lucus à non lucendo. In this proposed Harmony, the Evangelists, we conclude, are to go to loggerheads for the amusement of Mr. Hamilton and infidels.

he maintains 6 that both Moles and Jesus were persons extraordinarily commissioned by the Deity to declare his will, the fift to the Hebrews, and the latter by his apostles to the Gentiles.' If, however, the fingular author succeeds in the grand ebject of the present publication, can it be to us, at this distant period, a matter of any consequence whether Jesus were divinely commissioned or not? for if not only the writings of the primitive fathers of the church, but also those books which are universally received as containing the pure doctrine of Jesus and his apostles, be undoubtedly spurious, what utility can refalt to us from proving, or rather from afferting, the divine mission and inspiration of Jesus? If the ancients were such egregious liars and forgers of lies, their evidence on any fide of the question ought not to be taken; and Mr. Hamilton may be as much mistaken about his favourite Ebionites, as Dr. Horsley and Dr. Priestley about other sects.

It must be observed that, when our author makes his confession of faith in page 1. of the preliminary disquisition, viz. that he is an Ebionite; that is, one who believes in the divine mission of Jesus—that he was only a mere man—that he was not at all the Christ or Messioh, or the Anointed foretold by the Jewish prophets, under whose government the Jews were to enjoy that temperal prosperity described by them—and that he rejects, or makes little account of, the books of the New Testament; he makes an exception in savour of the gospel of St. Mark: yet, when he proceeds to notice this go pel of St. Mark, we are told that it abounds with a number of groundless interpolations. Allowing this to be the case, we may surely be permitted to ask this gentleman, who, at this distance of time, can winnow the chaff from the wheat, or separate the dross from the pure evangelical ore?

Jerom says, " Marcus breve scripsit evangelium;" on which Mr. H. remarks, ' though Mark's gospel is the shortest, still the true gospel of Mark was much shorter.' This short gospel, he farther says, ought to have been called the Gospel of Peter, who was the author of it, while Mark was only the amanuensis or scribe. It had also another title, according to Mr. H. viz. the Gospel according to the Hebrews, and was the only book of the New Testament which the Ebionites used: but it is by no means certain that this Gospel according to the Hebrews, which the Ebionites used, was the gospel of Mark; on the contrary, according to Iræneus, it was that of Matthew. Solo autem eo, quod est secundum Matthæum evangelis utuntur. Mr. H. however, perseveres in his opinion, Iræn. l. 1. c. 26. that the Gospel of Peter, the Gospel according to the Hebrews, and the Gospel of Mark, were originally one and the same gospel,

Hamilton's Strictures upon Knowles, &c.

as if there had been no opposing testimony; which is ing to us, as Lardner has quoted the above paffage from is, (fee Lardner's Works, vol. ii. p. 358. new edition.) akes it appear that the gospel used by the Ebionites, and the Gofpel of Matthew, and according to the Hebrews. not have been that ascribed to Mark, but must have been

tion from the four gospels.

at curtailments the Gospel of Mark is to undergo in .'s Harmony, in order to reduce it to the original breve lium, it is impossible for us to divine: but, in its present it certainly does not justify him in denying the existence n the Evangelist and John the Baptist. Nor do the reahich Mr. H. urges for annihilating Matthew and Luke, ren Mark too, appear at all satisfactory; they reminded he superficial objections advanced by Voltaire against the ticity of the five books of Moles, from their modern titles.

her are the only Jows, whom I have met with, who were thus Matthew is a name equally unknown among the Jews,—as for and Luke, they are evidently Roman and Greek names, totally on among the lews; and when it is confidered that the apostles the lowest class of the people, among whom the common are most usual, it must appear strange indeed, that the four filts should be deltinguished by names scarcely known among

Hebrew; and the political state of the Jews, at the commencement of and subsequent to the Christian era, when considered, will tend to abate our surprize at finding the names of Mark and Luke at the head of two of the gospels.

We shall take no notice of what Mr. H. advances against Paul's epistles and those of John, and also against the Acts, from

the use of the word herefy.

In the PRELIMINARY DISQUISITION, prefixed to the Strictures, an account is given of the principal herefies which sprang up among Christians during the first three centuries after Christabut if the works attributed to the most early Fathers be all spurious, the subject is indeed wrapped in more than Egyptian darkness: in darkness which no modern ingenuity can dissipate.

Mr. H. affirms Tertullian to be the most ancient of the fathers: but, as he proceeds, this father finks with the rest into

difrepute.

How, indeed, any writing, whether genuine or spurious, can be of use in ascertaining the divinity of the religion of Jesus, on Mr, H.'s position, we are utterly at a loss to conceive. 'Human testimony,' he says, 'is an inadequate proof of a divine interference.'

Could this be proved, it must at once annihilate gospels, sathers, and all, and supercede the necessity of any inquiry either

into the doctrines or herefies of the primitive church.

We must pass on, however, to the 'Strictures;' in which, it must be confessed, Mr. Hamilton discovers some learning and ability, and offers remarks and observations to which the living polemical writers mentioned in the title ought to attend. With his novelties, the author blends some good criticism.

He begins his letter to Dr. Knowles, with very properly noticing an infinuated centure contained in the "Primitive Christianity," on the honest as well as learned Lardner, as if, in his copious collection of materials from the fathers, he had artfully omitted whatever would militate against his favourite opinions. On the contrary, Mr. H. shews, that as strong passages in favour of Christ's divinity are adduced by Lardner, as are to be found in the "Primitive Christianity." After thus vindicating Lardner, he proceeds to lay before his readers an obfervation, which he believes to be peculiar to himself, respecting the origin or the reason of the denomination of Christians being given to the followers of Jesus; for as he denies Jesus to be the Christ, or to have been acknowleged as such by the believing Jews, be is forced to feek for a different derivation from that which is commonly offered. T

Hamilton's Strietures upon Knowles, Ge.

appears that Jefus was upon his trial called Chrift, a term ent, according to Christians, to Meshah, or the Anointed; but ry improbable is it that he should be thus bonourably distinby those who held him in abhorrence? Has there ever been ance of a nick-name [why must it be a nick-name? why not name by which his disciples and followers called him?] a apoled by enemies, implying honour? and that this name im-enour, is evident from its being derived from a Greek term ing to annint, [it implied honour when used by his disciples, but m used infultingly by enemies,] as if Jesus was anointed by the holt: add to this, that the Jews know nothing of the Hely Ghop, re they could not give him this name upon this account. we not therefore seek some other origin for the name? Being by enomies, a diphonourable origin should be sought, this being to human nature. May I not therefore suppose, that this is its root from the Greek word youl, which figuifies to preand that the words now almost universally found written Christia, iginally written Chreftes or Chrefter, i.e. Prophecier; to which nans gave their own termination, writing Christian; Christiani, me, i.e. followers of the prophecier, and that therefore the g of Matt. xxiv. 68. which runs thus, " Prophely unto us thou who is he that fmote thee?" is equivalent to faying, Prointo us thou prophecier, &c.' *

give Mr. H. credit for his ingenuity, but it was never infortunately exerted. He objects to the possibility of the giving Jesus the name of Christ, as it is derived from the cordant epinions which prevailed on this subject during four centuries from the birth of Christ:

There were four fects who admitted the divine mission of Jesus, namely, the Ebionites, who thought Jesus to be a divine messenger, though not the Christ or Messiah;—the Gnossics, who thought Christ to be totally Deity;—the Humanist, who held Jesus to be the Christ, though a man without any Deity;—and the Orthodox, who esteemed him to be both man and God in union.' P.21.

The prevalence of the orthodox opinion, Mr. H. attributes to the perfecution of the other feets; and, after taking notice that not a fingle production, prior to the council of Nice, of the Ebionites, of the Sabellians, of the Humanists, nor of the Gnostics, has descended to us, he upbraids Orthodoxy with having been, like Mohammedism, more indebted to the sword

and to violence for its propagation, than to argument.

The Bishop of St. David's, as a controversial writer, does not meet with the approbation of Mr. H. who has retorted on him the words tricks, stratagems, management, and base arts, of which, our author says, his Lordship is so liberal. He certainly convicts the Bishop of some inaccuracies and inattentions; as translating the word Nazareni, sometimes by Nazareans, and at other times by Nazarenes, (p. 94:) and, in the passage quoted from Origen, p. 126, of rendering the words missuages with two lines, believing in Christ instead of believing on fesus: but we cannot allow that this latter instance was a trick, as the Bishop could not suppose that he should have an Ebionite to contend with him.

On the subject of ancient heresies, Mr. H. does not hesitate to accuse the Bishop of great ignorance; and particularly of inconsistency in his account of the Ebionites or Nazarenes; p. 121. He says of his Lordship, that he appears to have no accurate knowlege on the points in question between himself and Dr. Priestley; that he is always led away by preconceived and groundless notions; and that his entire performance is filled with assertions without proofs; especially he disapproves of the Bishop's making a distinction between the Ebionites and Nazarenes.

While, however, he thus attacks the Bishop, he does not invoke the assistance of Dr. Priestley. To this Unitarian also, or Humanish, as he would call him, [and perhaps this is the better name,] he extends the charge of ignorance; and he wonders that the sacts, brought together by him in his history, or, as it may more properly be called, collection, of early opinions, did not make him suspect the age of the sathers, and incline him to believe that none of them slourished before the third century, and some of them even later.

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Mr. H. confines his remarks, relative to Dr. Priestley's writings, to three heads; namely, to what the Doctor has said respecting Marcellus,—concerning his affertion that the doctrine of the Arians, that Jesus Christ had no intelligent buman soul,

was a novelty-and respecting the Nestorian heresv.

On those passages which are produced by Dr. P. to establish his position that the Fathers, till the time of Arius, held the doctrine that Christ had an intelligent human soul united to the Logos, Mr. H. remarks that the words $\psi v \chi n$ and anima are used, by which the Greeks and Latins meaned the living principle or carnal soul, whose union with the body made it a living body, and not vec and animus, which were the terms by which they expressed the intellectual principle or rational soul, which was held to be distinct from the vivisying principle; so that Dr. P., by his quotations, has not established his position.

Though, however, our author opposes Dr. P. on this and other points, he assists him in maintaining the justice of his censure on the Bishop of St. David's, for translating, in a passage cited by him from Tertullian, idiotæ by idiots; and he affirms, that ' for any writer (especially a person of his Lordship's abilities and information,) to contend for idiots being the true rendering of idiotæ, in the passage in question, displays an hardiness of assured unparalleled, he believes, in the annals of controversy.' Part of what Mr. H. has advanced on this

topic, we shall exhibit in his own words:

That the common reader may be perfectly master of the question, I shall first lay before him what the learned Calepini says upon the word idiota, first premising, that my edition (for there are various ones) is of Padua, 1722, and entitled Sepiem Linguarum. " Idiota seu Idiotes – [Ital.] idiota, ignorante, Ger. ein seekebe person, Gal. idiot, Hisp. vdieta, 12.15 [Gr.] proprie notat hominem privatum, seu nullo munere publico fungentem; sed quia qui e vulgo sunt fere imperiti, indoctique esse consueverunt, accipitur sere a Latinis pro illiterato, indocio, imperito, ab il privatus, proprius, Cic. 7. Ver. Quæ non modo istum hominem ingeniosum atque intelligentem, verum etiam quemvis nostrum, quos ille idiotas appellat, delectare possent. Id. pro Sext. 31. Rem paternam ab idiotarum divitiis ad philosophorum regulam perduxit." "Idiota properly denotes a private man, or a person in no public employment; but, because the vulgar are accustomed to be generally unskilful, and unicarned, the term is generally received by the Latins for an illiterate, unlearned, unskilful [perfou], from Me [which fignifies] one's own. Cic. against Verres, 7. Which things may delight not only "this ingenious, and intelligent man, but also some of as, whom he calls micro." Every one can realily perceive, that the matter in this parlage, were not persons devoid of understanding, but only of take; which may, with truth, be afferted of mankind in general: but ideas means persons, who cannot draw conclusions from premiles, or that are incapable of arguing,

from being devoid of common sense: persons very different from the idiotz mentioned by Cicero. One would think, however, that his Lordship, by adducing the terms lourdaut, sot, ignorant, fool, idiot, would have it understood that these terms were the proper rendering of the Latin idiota. if this was his Lordship's view, I would not scruple to affirm, that he intended to impose upon ignorant, or beedless readers: for, as Calepini observes, idiota properly signifies a man in a private capacity; and I will venture to affirm never an ideot, in the legal fignification of this term in English, in any Latin author, for two centuries after Christ. His Lordship, indeed, acknowledges that he did not use it in this sense: but I can by no means grant to his Lordship that he is justifiable in expounding his author, except with the stridest conformity to the original; a liberty which he frequently indulges himself in; for the exposition is generally so contrived, as to efface in ordinary readers the impression which the original passage thould naturally produce.'

The simplices enim quique, ne dixerim imprudentes et idiotæ, que major semper credenzium pars est, of Tertullian, Mr. H. renders "For iome open [unguarded] people, I would not call them imprudent, and persons not employed in the service of the church, who are always the majority of believers;" and observes on it, that the Bishop's simplices, or simple people, never yet constituted the majority of any society. This is obvious. The major semper credentium pars determines the word idiotæ to mean

persons in a private capacity.

At the beginning of the fecond volume, we are informed that not one of the moderns (except Johannes Garnerius, the learned editor of Marius Mercator, and, perhaps, Montfaucon,) appears to understand the precise theological import of the terms Estatia, Substantia, &c. which are employed in the Trinitarian controverly. To elucidate these terms, Mr. H. desires the reader to suppose a dead snail to be put before him. On this dead snail, he thus lectures:

'This is a fubfiflence, &c. Let him afterwards suppose it to be endued with a reasonable soul; it will then be both a subsistence and a perfon. Let him then suppose the Deity to be comprehended under the figure of this animated snail. Sabellius held, that the Deity made himself known to the Jews in the time of Moses as the Father; and in the time of Jesus Christ by means of a pretension (which may be well conceived as resembling the horn of a snail, when it puts it forth,) which possessed the man Jesus Christ; and that the Holy Spirit was another protension, similar to that which possessed Jesus Christ, but which took possession of the apostles at the feast of Penticost succeeding the crucinxion.'

It will, doubtless, be thought unnecessary for us to offer any comment on this familiar illustration. How unfortunate is it that divines, after torturing their brains during nearly 1800 years for fimiles, should never have thought of a fnail!

Mr. H.

Hamilton's Strictures upon Knowles, Ge.

H. accuses Dr. Priestley of not knowing, in his account anism, where the jet of the question lay between him and introversialists, and explains this herefy to have consisted rming one God, and in devising subterfuges by which would apparently predicate the same of the Son and Holy In support of this interpretation, he quotes Socrates,

nen, and Theodoret.

e account here given of the Nestorian heresy is at variance with Dr. Priestley and Mr. Gibbon. Indeed, Mr. H. that the former writer's Hiltory of Early Opinions conmore errors than pages, at least where the heresies are the

must leave it to Dr. Priestley to notice, if he thinks , the strictures here offered to the public, and to vindiimfelf against a writer who accuses him of not having an ate idea of the term nature. Though Mr. H. does it ufly, yet, in some places, he points out inaccuracies both

.P. and Mr. Gibbon.

r author having declared war against Christianity, he yours to remove every evidence on which it refts, and this es in a very expeditious manner, viz. by denying the nce of its ancient advocates, and the genumeness of those ngs which bear their names. He sweeps from the cataof entities not only Cerinthus and Ebion, but Iræneus,

Rennell's Memoir of a Map of the Peninsula of India. 60

His observations on the Hebrew Bible are far from being accurate; and his notion that ' the ancient prophecies have been interpolated by Jews to amuse themselves at the expence of Christian credulity,' is absurd in the extreme.

We have waited in hope of feeing Mr. H. arrive at the end of his labours, but hitherto in vain, as he purposes in a

third volume to enter on a feries of new adventures.

The two volumes, now under our notice, are written with no attention to method and arrangement: the author passes from one subject to another with little ceremony, and, by the visible confusion in the work, has unnecessarily increased its length. We do not deny to Mr. H. the merit of learning and application: but we must own that to us he makes a very lame attempt to prove his favorite polition, viz. that 'Christianity is a human imposture moulded on the object of Jesus's mission. Though we have no objection to be enlightened, we cannot admire new opinions merely because they are new, nor swallowevery crude hypothesis.-Neither, on the other hand, would we be thought to take fright at the appearance of a new doctrine en account of its novelty, for that would tend to the rejection of all improvement, and the prevention of every valuable discovery. We have ever regarded, with reverence, the honest advice of one of our poets, who fays,

" Fly no opinion, Friend, because 'tis new:

The Memoir is divided into four sections; the first gives an account of the construction of the map; the second explains

F 2 several

[&]quot;Reject if false, embrace it is 'tis true."

ART. X. Memoir of a Map of the Peninfula of India; from the latest Authorities: exhibiting its natural and political Divisions: the latter, conformable to the Treaty of Seringapatam, in March 1792. With observations on the political and military Advantages that may be derived from the new cessions: And an Account of the Site and Remains of the ancient City of Beejanuggur. By Major Rennell. 4to. pp. 51. with a large folio Sheet Map; 7s. 6d. Nicol. 1793.

THE geographical materials, lately brought to light, which may be numbered among the least equivocal advantages of the recent war with Tippoo, are considerable enough to warrant an entirely new construction of the map of the Peninsula of India. This has therefore taken place; and the present memoir accompanies a new and elegant map of the country, from the Kistnah river to Cape Comorin, exhibiting a distinct view of the Table land, of Tippoo Sultan's boundaries, and those of the allied powers.

Rennell's Memoir of a Map of the Peninfula of India.

l important particulars, hitherto little known, relating to itural and political division of the peninsula; the third ins some observations on the advantages that may be defrom the cessions made by Tippoo to Great Britain and lies; and the sourth describes the scite and remains of the ricity of Beejanuggur, once the capital and residence of indoo kings of the country known also by the name of the nuggar, comprehending all that part of the peninsula lies south of the river Kistnah. From this valuable mewe shall select the sollowing observations on the districts to the British conquerors:

remains that we should particularize the districts ceded to the those to the Mahrattas and Nizam being already mentioned course of the Memoir. The British acquisitions are in three tracts or parcels; but are, in effect, joined, by the interventhe territories of our ailies, the Nabob of Arcot, and the Ra-Travancore. It would, no doubt, have been more convenius, to have possessed, in addition to the districts actually all the country of Coimbettore; so as not only to preserve a communication across the peninfula, but also to deprive Tipa granary, and of resources. But it must be considered that basis of the preliminary treaty, we could take no more than we we were limited to a certain sum of revenue; and we could ke such a quantity of land, as produced that amount. The notice, after the preliminary treaty was made, was only con-

Rennell's Memoir of a Map of the Peninsula of India. 7

future quarrels with the Mysorean: for, not to mention, that in the first instance a defensive war on our part must inevitably ruin us; it may be faid that a defence that rests too much on the fortifying of certain passes, must be nugatory: we may impede, but we cannot prevent, the irruption of a powerful and active enemy; so that the use of confining an enemy to a certain pass, is to know for certain where to find him. On the principle that Tippoo always has made, and if permitted, ever will make, war on us; that is to fav, by desolating our country; and whilst he evades an attack, harasses and wears out our troops and resources; we must lose ground in the contest. late glorious successes of our arms, shew what the plans of our campaigns ought to be, should Tippoo again feel his strength: we must at all events carry the war into bis country, by attacking his capital, and other principal fortreffes; to accomplish the double purposes of keeping him at home, and reducing his power, at the same time. In the event of a war, therefore, we should find a more direct and eafy access to the enemy's country by the centre of the Barra-Mahal, than by any route we have hitherto taken: and have our convoys also secured by a chain of posts. We shall also set off from a point, five marches nearer to Scringapatam, than in our last expedition: and may arrive at it, in 8 or 9 from the head of the pass, by the way of Oussore.

The immediate security of our own possessions, and that of the Coorgs and Nayres, being provided for, the remaining object of confideration was to possess the next useful piece of territory to ourselves; or what would render the enemy's frontier less secure to him. Dindigul must have immediately occurred; as being the key of Coimbettore, on the side of Tritchinopoly: and as having appertaining to it, a territory that projected far into the heart of the fouthern provinces: by the possession of which, we of course shortened our line of It is an undoubted fact, that the power which presents a frong frontier, is master of the open country of his adjoining neighbour, unless an adequate force be stationed in it: so that, combining the advantages resulting from the possession of both Palicaud and Dindigul, we may confider the Coimbettore and Daraporam countries as at our mercy, unless the enemy divides his force; a measure that would give us still greater advantages. I could have wished however, that we had a more direct communication with Palicaud, and the western coast, than we now have: for it must be remembered, that although the districts on the Malabar coast are subject to Bombay, yet they will, from fituation, always call for fudden aid on Madras: and therefore, perhaps, should be placed under that presidency in the first in-

For a more particular description of these countries, we refer to the work, which cannot be completely understood without frequently consulting the map. Tippoo's cessons to the British exceed, according to Major Rennell, fisteen thousand square miles, of which the revenues are computed at 411,450l. The Nizam has acquired a track of 12,750 square miles; and the Mahrattas only 7962, of which the revenues

t 4 are

are taken at 411,450l. each square mile producing 52l. per ann. to the state. The land tax of England and Wales is computed at 33l. per square mile:—but in England, the land tax is less than one eighth of the whole revenue; whereas in India, the tax in land represents the revenue in general.

The ruins of Beejanuggur lie on the southern bank of Toombuddra river. Lieutenant Emmit, who visited them in November last, traced several streets from 30 to 45 yards wide; one of which is nearly entire, having collonades of stone on each side, and a very large pagoda at one extremity. Cæsar Frederick, who visited Beejanuggur in 1565, gives it a circuit of 24 miles. Major R. conceives that the reason for Tippoo's wishing to retain the circar of Annagoondy, instead of ceding it with the rest of the Dooab to the Mahrattas, was his anxiety for the safety of the descendants of the ancient kings of Beejanuggur, who reside in the above circar, subsisting on a territorial income of 25,000l.; inclusively of the regalities of a mint at Annagoondy, which they are suffered to enjoy through the compassionate bounty or policy of the Myforcan king. It is pleafing to find, at the conclusion of a peace with Tippoo, that he is not fo totally destitute of every virtue, as report had hitherto represented him.

ARY. XI. Pieces of Ancient Popular Poetry: from authentic MSS, and old printed Copies. Adorned with Cuts. Crown 8vo. pp. 152. 4s. Boards. Egertons.

I'm is very convenient to the indolence of a critic, when an author supplies in his preface the point of view whence his work should be surveyed. We transcribe.

[·] The genius which has been fuccefsfully exerted in contributing to the induction or amulement of feciety, in even the rudeft times, feems to have tome claim upon its gratitude for protection in more enlightened ones. It is a superannuated domedic, whose palled services entitle his old age to a comfortable provision and retreat; or, rather, indeed, a humble friend, whose attackment in adverse circumstances demands the warm and grateful acknowledgements of prosperity. The venerable though nameless bards whom the generofity of the public is now courted to rescue from oblivion and obscurity, have been the savecrites of the people for ages, and could once boast a more numerous train of apparating admirers than the most celebra-ted of one modern pacts. Their compositions, it may be true, will have for charms in the critical eve of a cultivated age; but it hould alores to come when she that, without feel efforts, humble as they are, or commencer conserved threadd prior exists and barbarism and ignotables a storical. It is to an Fee as porhaps, that we are indebted for A for a street in steel as the sand convey, or others still more obhomes that we one the admirable dramas of our divined Shakifeere;

Pieces of Ancient Popular Poetry.

That all the best of Arthur's knights Did him much pleasure show.

- As good Sir Lancelot of the Lake, Sir Triffram, and Sir Guy;
 Yet none compar'd with brave Tom Thumb For knightly chivalry.
- In honour of which noble day,
 And for his ladies fake,
 A challenge in king Arthur's court
 Tom Thumbe did bravely make.
- Gainft whom these noble knights did run Sir Chinon, and the rest,
 Yet still Tom Thumbe with matchles might Did beare away the best.
- At last Sir Lancelot of the Lake
 In manly fort came in,
 And with this stout and hardy knight
 A battle did begin.
- Which made the courtiers all agaft,
 For there that valiant man

 Through Lancelot's fleed, before them all,
 In nimble manner ran.
- Yea horse and all, with speare and shield, As hardly he was seene,
 But onely by king Arthur's selfe
- And his admired queene,
 Who from her finger tooke a ring,
 Through which Tom Thumbe made way,
 Not touching it, in nimble fort,
 As it was done in play.
- He likewise cleft the smallest haire From his faire ladies head, Not hurting her whose even hand Him lasting honors bred.
- Such were his deeds and noble acts
 In Arthur's court there showne,
 As like in all the world beside
 Was hardly seene or knowne.
- Now at these sports he toyl'd himselse. That he a sicknesse tooke, Through which all manly exercise. He carelessly forsooke.
- Where lying on his bed fore ficke, King Arthur's doctor came, With cunning skill, by physick's art, To ease and cure the same.

Pieces of Ancient Popular Poetry.

His body being fo flender small,
 This cunning doctor tooke

A fine prospective glasse, with which He did in secret looke

Into his fickened body downe,
 And therein faw that death

Stood ready in his wasted guts To sease his vitall breath.

 His armes and leggs confum'd as fmall As was a spiders web,

Through which his dying houre grew on. For all his simbes grew dead.

 His face no bigger than an ant's, Which hardly could be teene:
 The loffe of which renowned knight Much griev'd the king and queene.

* And so with peace and quictnesse
He left this earth below;
And vp into the Fayry land
His ghost did sading gue.

Whereas the Fayry queene receiv'd, With heavy mourning cheere, The body of this valiant knight, Whom the effected to deere. minutive fize? We know that the name Oberon occurs first in the romance of Sir Huon, translated by Lord or Lady Berners in the time of Henry the Eighth:—but whence the names Mab, and Titania? How is it that Puck is fometimes a giant, who threshes corn as fast as ten men, and sometimes a dwarf, as in Shakspeare. Does Welsh superstition furnish a part, and Danish superstition another part, of the received system? Does King Offa's dyke circle the Elysum of the Elysum any where but in Rowley's poems?

The lover's quarrel concludes this small volume, which is ushered into the world with much typographical elegance, and enriched with introductions which betray no common hand. It may be truly said of them in the words of the motto: To

make suche trifels it afketh some commyng.

ART. XII. Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of Landon, for the Year 1792. Part II.

[Article concluded from the Review for April, p. 451.]
PHILOSOPHICAL and ASTRONOMICAL PAPERS, &c.

Account of the remarkable Effects of a Shipwreck on the Mariners; with Experiments and Observations on the Instuence of Immersion in Fresh and Salt Water, but and cold, on the Powers of the living Body. By James Currie, of Liverpool, M.D.

THE shipwreck, to which the author of this paper refers, happened on the 19th of December 1790, on a fand-bank in the opening of the river Merley into the Irish channel. The number of persons on board was fourteen; of whom three died, and eleven escaped and recovered, after having remained in the wreck during 23 hours. The two persons, who first died during this period, were in the flower of life, early inared to cold and hardships, and vigorous both in body and The other was of a much more feeble constitution. and yet lived till within a few hours of the rescue of his ship-Several of the survivors had been accustomed to warm climates; and he who seemed to have suffered least was a negroe. In order to account for the extraordinary circumstances that occur in this narrative, it was suggested that the two perfons, who first died, had eaten freely of cherries that had been fleeped in brandy, and that their death had been precipitated by intoxication. This fact was at first generally admitted; and it was thought to confirm a doctrine, which had been ably supported by Dr. Aiken and others, that spirituous liquors, though they may fortify the body against the effects of heat combined with moisture, and probably sustain it for a short

time under great fatigue, are uniformly hurtful when taken under severe and continued cold. In this solution Dr. Currie was inclined to acquiesce: but, with the true spirit of philosophy, he determined to examine the various circumstances of this melancholy event more accurately. One of the survivors, who was the mate of the veffel,—an intelligent young man, informed him of every particular which he wished to know. said, that the keg containing the cherry brandy was staved, and that all the cherries bad been washed into the sea; that there was no liquor of any kind faved, nor any fort of food; and that the whole crew were in every respect alike circumstanced, except that some were deeper in the water than others, and that his two deceased companions had the advantage, by sitting on the only part of the wreck that was out of the fea, while the poor negroe, who escaped almost unhurt, was perhaps deeper in the fea than any other person: the part of the wreck, on which they were lashed, was held by the anchor, and floated in the water; so that a small portion of the after-part of the quarter deck was above the furface. On this part, the two persons, whose more sudden death is considered as singular, were situated: and they were therefore generally out of the fea, but frequently overwhelmed by the furge, and at other times exposed to heavy showers of sleet and snow, and to a high and piercing wind. The temperature of the air was conjectured to be from 30° to 33° of Fahrenheit, and that of the sea from 38° to 40°. Next to the two persons whose situation has been already mentioned, was the mate; and as the flope of the deckwas confiderable, he was generally up to the middle in the The others were more deeply immersed, and some of them were fo low that the water rose to their shoulders.

The first person who died was the master of the vessel. The mate was first alarmed by hearing him talk incoherently, like one in the delirium of a fever: but his voice gradually funk into a mutter, and his hearing seemed to fail. At length, he raised himself up in a fort of convulsive motion, in which he continued a few seconds, and then fell back dead on the This happened about eight in the evening, four hours after the ship went aground. About eleven at night, his companion died with fimilar fymptoms, but after longer struggling. The third person died in the forenoon of the succeeding day. All the rest, after suffering severely both from cold and hunger, survived till they were taken up about three in the afternoon. The mate informed Dr. C. that his hands and feet were fwelled and numb, though not absolutely senseles: he felt a tightness at the pit of his stomach; and his mouth and lips were parched: but he was most distressed by cramps in the muscles. muscles of his sides and hips, which were drawn into knots. Though immersed in the sea, they were all very thirsty; and though exposed to such severe cold, they were not drowly, nor did Acep precede death in those that died.

It is very natural to infer from the preceding recital, that the death of the first two victims was owing to their peculiar

position on the wre k:

Exposed to heavy showers of sleet and snow, they might suffer from being wet with frosh rather than falt water : they might also fuffer from being expeled to the cold of the atmosphere, probably 7° or 8° greater than that of the sea. The chilling effects of evaporation might operate against them, promoted as these must have been by the high wind: or they might receive injury from their frequent immersions in the sea, producing an alternation in the media surrounding."

The fundamental power of animation feems to be the capacity which the living body possesses of preserving the same heat in various degrees of temperature of the same medium. and in media of different denfity and pressure. To seamen, it is well known that, in the fame temperature, pure water is much more injurious to the body than water in which falt is The faline impregnation, Dr. Currie suggests, may diffolved. stimulate the vessels of the skin in some way that counteracts the fedative or debilitating action of the cold. With a view of throwing some light on this curious subject, he pursued a feries of experiments which afforded an opportunity of observing the effects of immersion in fresh and salt water, of equal temperature, in the animal heat. We can only select a few,

and mention fome of the leading circumstances.

Dr. C. having filled a veisel, containing 170 gallons of falt water, impregnated in the proportion of 1 to 24, and placing it in the open air, observed the temperature of the air and of the water to be 44°. The subject of his experiment was a healthy man about 28 years of age. Before he began to undress himself, his heat was 98°, and his pulse 100 in a minute. In the room where he was undressed, the mercury was at 56°: but when the man had froed naked for some time before the fire, his heat and pulse were found to be as before. After having been exposed for a minute in an open court to a sharp North-East wind, he was plunged suddenly into the water up to the shoulders. A thermometer, which had been kept in a jug of warm water at the heat of 100° was introduced into his mouth with the bulb under his tongue, as foon as the efkes of the shock subsided; it was found that the mercury sunk rapidly; and, in 1; minute after immersion, it stood at 87°. While he continued motionless in the water, the mercury gradualiy

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ally rose, and, at the end of 12 minutes, it stood at 97 ting on the power that must be employed to preserve the heat in a medium to denfe as water, and supposing that ower might continue its operation some time after the rdinary stimulus or the pressure of the water was removed. . expected to fee the mercury rife by the accumulation of at on changing the medium of water for air; and theretept him exposed, naked, to the wind two minutes after taken out of the bath :- but the mercury fell rapidly, h, in the mean while, his attendants were rubbing him ith towels. When he was put into a warm bed, his when examined under the tongue, was 87°, and at the 89°. Frictions were used, and brandy mixed with was administered: but it was found, on this as well as on occasions, that the best mode of counteracting the cold o apply a bladder with hot water to the pit of the Romach. this was done, his shiverings, which were before severe, eafed. Three hours afterward he had not recovered his foreat: but, before eight at night, the process now recited g commenced at four in the afternoon, he was in all ts as usual. On the next day, this experiment was rewith fimilar refults. - In another experiment, Dr. Currie ed to try the methods of heating as well as of cooling the With this view, the same person was immersed on the

The wind was North East and brisk. In one minute after immersion the heat was 90°, and it rose during 30 minutes to 04°, having at three different periods been at 94½°. During this process, the man, on being plunged into the water, felt an extreme cold, which he ascribed partly to his being before exposed, naked, to the wind. In a little while, however, he felt himself comfortable:-but, after some time, the sense of coldness returned, though in a less degree than at first; and it diminished again, but in a less degree. At length his sensations became permanent. In this state, while the water was at reft, he should not have known by his feelings, from the upper part of his chest to the pubes, that he was in water at all. His feet and legs were very cold; and so were his hands and arms, the penis and scrotum. He likewise occasionally felt a cold circle round the upper part of his body, which was greatest at first, and extended over the space which, from the undulations occasioned by immersion into the water, was altermately above and under the furface of the water. When the bath fettled, this sensation was little felt, but might be easily reproduced by agitating the fluid.—This circumstance accounts for the cramps which were severely felt by the mate of the wrecked ship in the muscles of his hips and sides, which, from his fituation on the wreck, must have been alternately above and under the furge.-When the man was exposed naked to the wind, the mercury funk as usual five or fix degrees, and his shiverings were great. In order to restore his heat as speedily as possible, the hot bath was incautiously heated to 104°: but, after he had been in it for half a minute, he screamed out with pain, especially in the extremities and about the scrotum. When taken out, his shiverings were almost convulsive. The heat of the bath was lowered to 88°, and the man replaced in it; and its temperature was then, with a pretty rapid progress, raised to 100°. His shivering, however, continued, and his heat remained about 900: but a bladder of very hot water being applied, under the fur. ace of the bath, to his stomach, it instantaneously produced beneficial effects; so that his shivering ceased, and his heat mounted rapidly to 08°. This experiment was again repeated on the same subject, and on a different person, with some little variation both as to the temperature of the baths and the duration of the process, but with little difference as to the general refult. In one case, however, the mercury sunk very rapidly in a cold salt-water bath, the temperature of which was 40°, from 94° (the heat at immersion,) to about 83°, and then rose by inegular gradations, till, at the end of 13' it stood at 92°. Here it remained for 19' with little variation; it then REV. MAY 1793.

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to fall rapidly, and, in 3', funk to 85°. At the end of the man was hurried into a warm bath heated to 96°, he shivered much. The bath was gradually heated to and in this heat he recovered his proper temperature in 28'. When he was removed into a warm bed, he perprosufely and regained his usual health. e natural pulse of one of the subjects of these experiments bout 70 in a minute: but, on account of the agitation preceded the experiments, it was never flower than 85 immersion, and generally more. It invariably sunk to be from that to 68, in the water, and became firm, regunds and small. After long continuance in the bath it could

nd small. After long continuance in the bath, it could be sell at the wrist, but the heart beat with great steadind due force. In the experiment which we have last rewhen the heat sunk rapidly, the subject of it complained e sell a coldness and faintness at his stomach, which he not perceived before, and the motion of his heart was and languid. In other trials of the effects of immersion sh water, the same coldness at the stomach preceded a sall of the mercury; and hence, as well as from other instances, Dr. Currie insers, that there is some peculiar cation of the stomach, or of the diaphragm, or of both, the process of animal heat:

hele experiments (he fays,) familh irrefragable proofs of the

Ariking, and not sufficiently explained by any of the common suppositions. The loss of heat, by a change of media, appears to depend very much on the rapidity of the change; for the plastic powers of life, in varying the process of animal heat so as to accommodate it to the external changes, acts for a time with great celerity, though this celerity seems to diminish with the strength. The influence of the application of cold water to the furface of the body on the heat, is, in some respects, regulated by the animal vigour; as the author has evinced by a particular experiment: and he observes that, in severs, where the heat is generally increased from 2 to 6 degrees above the flandard of health, pouring a bucket of cold water on the head always reduces the pulse in frequency, and commonly lowers the heat from 2 to 4 or 5 degrees. This falutary practice he propoles to discuss at large on some future occasion. He also adds, that the power of the body, in preserving its heat under the impressions of cold, and the changes of temperature and of media, feems to be in some measure regulated by the condition of the mind; and there are also particular states of the atmosphere not perfectly understood, that seem to have an influence in depriving us more speedily of an animal heat, than others where the cold is greater.

The only experiment which the author relates with regard to the effects of immersion in fresh water in the animal powers. and particularly in the heat, is the following: The subject of the preceding experiments was immersed at the same hour of the day in the same vessel containing an equal bulk of fresh water. His previous heat was 98°, and his pulse beat 92 in the minute. The heat of the air was 4110, and that of the water 40°. The wind was westerly; and, in the court where the vessel stood, a perfect calm prevailed. As Dr. C. was fearful of the issue of this experiment, instead of exposing the man naked to the wind before immersion, he was secured from the air by a flannel dress, till the instant of his descending into the water; and he was suffered to fink himself slowly into it, with the bulb of the thermometer under his tongue. refult of the experiment is exhibited in a table; whence it appears that his heat, which, on immersion, was 98°, gradually declined with some small irregularity, till, at the end of 34', it flood at Q210. The man was removed flowly into the air. and flood in it for three minutes, the wind not blowing on him. He lost one degree of heat at first, which he recovered. He was then put into a warm bath at 90°, which at first he felt warm, and his feet and hands were in pain; but, in 2', a viokent shivering commenced, and his heat fell two degrees. bath, was then heated to 95° and 96°, but he still felt cold.

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eated to 99°, in which he continued 5′, and his heat. The heat was gradually raised to 106°, when the coldness, of which he had complained at the pit of the, gradually went off. After being half an hour in this sown heat was still 93°. He now became sick and guid; a cold sweat covered his face, and his pulse was not feeble. He was removed into bed, passed a night, and, on the next day, had wandering pains over, with great debility, resembling the incipient stage of

By cordials and rest, the symptoms went off.
experiment confirms the notion that it is more dangere wet with fresh than with salt water: but it is too hato be rashly repeated. The author proposes to make
rials on the brute creation, when he is provided with

hermometers.

ne subject which led the author to this course of curiwell-conducted experiments, he subjoins the following. As it is more desirable to be wet with salt water sh, it is recommended to sailors, who are exposed to nowers of rain, hail, or snow, to wring their clothes alt water. This practice was successfully adopted by ant Bligh and his crew. In all cases, where, by shipr otherwise, men are reduced to the necessity of either ing their limbs in the sea, or of exposing them to the thirst, yet there is no doubt that it was an alleviation, and that it thus contributed to the preservation of life.

Dr. Currie remarks that the most accurate method of estimating heat by introducing the bulb of the thermometer into ahe mouth, is to place it under the tongue with the lips shut. In this way, the cooling essect of respiration will be in a very considerable degree prevented. Thermometers, that are best adapted for this purpose, are curved at the end to which the bulb is affixed; and the bulb is introduced at the corner of the mouth.

Observations on the Atmospheres of Venus and the Moon, their respective Densities, perpendicular Heights, and the Twilight occassioned by them. By John Jerome Schroeter, Esq. of Lilienthal, Bremen. Translated from the German.

We had occasion not long ago (App. tovol. vii. N.S. p. 481,) to speak with respect of the indefatigable assiduity, with which the ingenious author of this paper pursues his celestial observations. Whether they will warrant all the conclusions which he deduces from them, we shall not presume to determine. They will at least serve the important and useful purpose of leading others, who have opportunity, and who are surnished with the necessary instruments, either to verify them, or to discover the defects and errors that attend them. As far as we can judge, they seem to have been conducted with attention and accuracy; and they are reported so much in detail, that no material circumstance is omitted.

Our aftronomical readers will recollect that the transits of Venus in the years 1761 and 1765 exhibited some phenomena, which seemed to favour the hypothesis of an atmosphere belonging to this planet. They were, however, of such a nature, and were particularly noticed by so few of the numerous observers on those occasions, that they afforded no satisfactory evidence for ascertaining the validity of such an atmosphere. One of the observers, indeed, intimated his apprehension, that, to be able to discern an atmosphere about a planet at so great a distance as Venus, might be regarded as chimerical. The argument from analogy, which some have urged, will be generally deemed infufficient without the concurrence of actual observations; and these have been so sew and so inconclusive. that feveral of the most celebrated astronomers have thought themselves authorized to doubt the existence of the atmosphere. of this planet. M. Schroeter is of a very different opinion; and he is not only convinced that it has an atmosphere of confiderable extent, but that he has been able to point out many inferences concerning its nature and properties, which are new and interesting. About 12 years ago, he began to observe \mathbf{G}_{3}

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with a good three-feet achromatic telescope; and he ered a striking diminution of light on the planet in its s phases, from its exterior limb toward the interior of its illuminated surface, and especially near the

This appearance induced him to pursue his obons; and he found that the phenomenon recurred as
s he looked at the planet with an Herschelian four
ven seet resector, armed with the higher magnifying
s. This diminution of light naturally shews itself bethe greater eastern and western elongations and the inconjunction, when Venus appears about half full, or faland still of sufficient breadth: but it is not equally senn all the phases of the planet, and varies at different

Its appearances depend on the favourable state of our phere, the proper construction of the telescope, and the us disposition of the eye of the spectator. After acing for some peculiar circumstances that attend this phenon, when observed at the farther extremities of the cusps more falcated phases of the planet, and illustrating them ares, the author remarks that,

a clear and calm atmosphere, and with a high magnifying it is truely pleasing to see, after the eye is accustomed to it, e whole of the terminating border, even to the further extre-

clination; and though approaching to its inferior conjunction on: the 18th of March, was so far above the horizon, that it might. be seen with great advantage. On the 9th, the southern cusp did not appear precisely of its usual circular form, but some what inflected in the shape of a hook, beyond the luminous semicircle, into the dark hemisphere of the planet. This appearance was not new: but another phenomenon, which the author had never feen before, excited his particular attention. The northern cusp terminated in the same narrow tapering manner with the fouthern, but did not extend its bright luminous appearance into the dark hemisphere. From its point, however, the light of which, though gradually fading, was yet of sufficient brightness, a streak of glimmering bluish light. proceeded into the dark hemisphere; which, though intermittent as to its intensity, was permanent in its duration, and, though very faint, could be plainly feen with the above-mentioned magnifying powers:

Like the luminous line then seen in Saturn, its light seemed to twinkle in various detached points, and appeared throughout not only very faint, when compared with the light at the point of the cusp, but also of a very peculiar kind of faintness, verging towards a pale greenish hue. The limb of the planet at this small part of its dark moiety appeared with as faint a light, and, compared with the extremity of the southern cusp, as pale as the dark limb of the moon three days before and after the new moon, when it is faintly illuminated by the reflected rays from the earth: and it appeared to me, that towards the farther extremity, where it was actually inslected, according to the circular limb of the dark hemisphere, its light vanished into a pale bluish tint, in the same manner as the more vivid light of the luminous hemisphere dwindles away towards the terminating border and the extremities of the cusps.'

This appearance the author has endeavoured to exhibit in a figure. The apparent diameter of Venus at this time meafured 59": but the greatest breadth of the illuminated part did not exceed 2".6.

On the following evening, the observation was repeated with the four-feet instrument, and with powers magnifying 134 and 70 times.

The fouthern cusp had its luminous prolongation, but not quite so distinct as the preceding night: but what was more remarkable, each cusp, but chiefly the northern one, had now most evidently a faint tapering prolongation of a bluish grey cast, which, gradually fading, extended along the dark hemisphere, so that the luminous part of the limb was considerably more than a semi-circle.'

On the next night, being the 11th of March, M. Schroeter, with his seven-seet restecter, and a power magnifying 95 times, sound Venus before sun-set. He saw distinctly the southern G 4

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terminating in a luminous streak, which now, as in the 1g of the 9th, was longer and narrower than the bright nation of the northern cusp. The apparent diameter of 1s was 60", and the greatest breadth of the illuminated which could not be exactly ascertained on account of undulations in the air, was thought not to exceed 2". On coasion, the author observed very distinctly, and for a comple time, the saint bluish luminous streak, sensibly extendan instacted direction beyond the bright semi-circle. On ening of the 12th, the planet was again observed with the elescope, magnifying 95 and 74 times.

appeared (says the author,) very distinct, and I ascertained, behe possibility of doubt, that the southern cusp projected somento the dark hemisphere; and that from the point of the norone, the very saint narrow streak of pale bluish light, intermitintensity on account of its faintness, but yet permanent as to
on, extended several degrees along the limb of the dark hemisof the planet. I strained all my visual powers, but could actute this appearance only at the northern point. As the planet
ded towards the horizon, the light of the very sharp southern,
as that of the bright part of the northern point, began to glimith gradual dimination, the latter more faintly than the former;
t the least appearance of a pale bluish prolongation could be
at the southern cusp.

tions, which it is not possible for us to explain without the diagrams, and without far exceeding the limits of this article, the author concludes that the perpendicular height of the inferior and more dense part of the atmosphere of Venus, which has the power of reflecting the folar light to fuch a degree as, under favourable circumstances, to be visible on our globe, where, with a good telescope, it assumes the appearance of a faint ashcoloured light, measures 2526 toises, or 15,156 Paris seet; that, at this height, it is so dense as to reflect such a light on a zone extending 67 geographical miles into the dark hemisphere, that we, at a distance of only 12° 47' 45" from the sun, and when this luminary is only from 3 to 4 degrees below the horizon, can fee it so distinctly as to be able to compare it with our common twilight, measuring 6° 231'; and that, therefore, the twilight of Venus extends, at least in a considerable proportion, as far as ours; that its atmosphere rises, like ours, far above the highest mountains; and that, though we ascribe to it the greatest possible transparency, it must be more opake than that of the moon,

The fimple fact, that Venus in its different phases, and especially at the times of its greatest elongations, shews a much greater diminution of light at its terminating border than the moon, is, no doubt, sufficient to point out a much denser atmosphere than that of this satellite. And this is, moreover, fully evinced by the observation on its twilight. The circumstance also, that there are seen on this planet none of the stat spherical forms which are conspicuous on Jupiter and Saturn, none of the stripes or longitudinal spots parallel to the equator which are seen on these planets and the sun, and which point out a certain stretch of atmosphere, gives room to infer, that the globe of Venus, with reserence to its diameter, and other circumstances of physical arrangement in its construction, versorms its rotation round its axis in a much longer space of time than those planets, or the nearly similar ones of our earth and Mars; and this is actually consirmed by my observations on the diurnal period of Venus.'

By similar observations on the moon, the author conceives, that he has confirmed, beyond reasonable contradiction, the arguments adduced by him in his Selenotopographic Fragments, in proof of the real existence of a lunar atmosphere. These observations are recited in the sequel of this paper. We have also the process by which the height of the moon's atmosphere is ascertained; and the result of the whole is, that the lower and more dense part of it, or that part which has the power of resecting a bright crepuscular light, is only 1356 Paris seet in height. Hence the author takes occasion to suggest that, according to the different librations or the moon, ridges of mountains, even of a moderate height, situated at or pear the terminating border, may partially, or sometimes

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revent this crepufcular light, either at one or the other d occasionally at both. The lunar atmosphere, acto M. Schroeter's principles and calculations, is fuffilense to reflect a twilight over a zone of the dark he-29 34' or 101 geographical miles in breadth, which is tense than the light reflected on the dark hemisphere by oft wholly illuminated difk of our earth; and allowing enfe part an altitude of 1356 feet, the more rarefied part e, at least, above the highest mountains in the moon. mosphere of the moon, though considerably dense, is ore rare than that of our earth; and, as we have already than that of Venus. Hence it is inferred that the inof light produced by it cannot be very great, agreeably omputation of M. du Sejour, who states the inflection olar rays which touch the moon, at no more than 44". thor estimates the duration of the brightest twilight of n, when it is in the nodes, at 5h 3; and observes that be longer in other parts of the orbit, according to the of the nodes.

der to account for the sudden occultations of the fixed their approach to the moon, which admit of a diminusplendour, at the most, only for a few seconds, and, in a crted by the author from his own observation, only of supposes the breadth of the lunar twilight as far as the

On the Civil Year of the Hindoos and its Divisions. With an Account of Three Hindoo Almanacs belonging to Charles Wilkins, Esq. By Henry Cavendish, Esq. F. R. S.

This is a curious paper, and contains information that may be of confiderable use to those who wish to acquaint themselves with the method of computing time in the different parts. of India. In order to clear up the difficulties that involve this subject. Mr. C. had recourse to some of the principal patras, or almanacs, published by the Hindoos; and, availing himself of the affiftance which they afforded him, he has explained the mode of regulating the civil year by the aftronomical in different provinces, and of estimating its subordinate divisions into months and days. The almanacs in common use are computed at Benares, Tirhut, and Nadeea, the three principal feminaries of Hindoo learning in the company's provinces: and hence they are annually dispersed through the adjacent country. Every Brahmin who has the charge of a temple, and who announces the time for observing religious ceremonies, is furnished with one of these almanacs; and, if he be an astronomer, he introduces those corrections which'a difference of latitude and longitude may require. The Benares almanac is used in the upper part of India: that computed at Nadeea, in Bengal: and the Tirhut, in Bahar.

To these almanaes the Hindoos are obliged to recur, in order to know what day of the month it is; because the several months, both folar and lunar, confift neither of a determinate number of days, nor are regulated by any cycle, but depend folely on the motions of the fun and moon; and their months sometimes begin on different days in various places, on account of the difference of latitude and longitude, as well as of the difference which arises from error in computation. The civil day in all parts of India begins at sun rise, and is divided into 60 parts, called dandas, which are sub-divided into 60 palas. Wherever the Benares patra is used, the civil year is lunifolar, confishing of 12 lunar months, with an intercalary month occafionally introduced. It begins at the day after the new moon next before the beginning of the folar year. The lunar month is divided into 30 parts called teethees, each of which is equal to the time in which the true motion of the moon from the fun is 12°. The method of computing the days by these teethees, and also of counting their months, is extremely intricate. Mr. C. has bestowed great pains on the explanation of it; and to his paper we must refer.—The Nadeea almanac begins with the day after that on which the astronomical year commences a this is called the first of the month, the next day is denomina-

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fecond, and fo on to the end; and therefore the number s in the month varies from 29 to 32. The names of nths are the same with those of the lunar months in the s almanac: but the lunar months begin, not as those do full, but at the new moon, and are called by the name of er month which ends during the course of them. From nmencement of the Nadeca almanac, and from its giving of the folar month, which that of Benares does not, Mr. ed to infer that it is cultomary, in those parts of India the Nadeea almanac is used, to date by the folar month, begin the year on the next day to the affronomical year. spurpose, he is informed, the Hindoos of Bengal, in all their on transactions, date according to folar time, and use what monly called the Bengal era: but, in the correspondence of ahmins, in dating books, and in regulating feasts and fasts, enerally note the teethee. Of the Tirhut almanac, Mr. obtained no information: but there is reason to conjecat it agrees with that of Nadeea more than with that of

rative of the Earthquake felt in Lincolnsbire, and the neighing Counties, on the 25th of February 1792. In a Letter 1 Edmuna Turner, Esq. F. R. S. to Sir Joseph Banks, t. P. R. S.

do not find any thing that deferred position ---

rity of the atmosphere, which he has brought to so great a degree of persection, that he is enabled to collect the electric fluid in sufficient quantity for ascertaining the kind which predominates in the atmosphere, even in its weakest state. Of his attention and accuracy in the use of it, the journal affords ample evidence.

From repeated observations and long experience, (says Mr. Read,) I am persectly satisfied that the aqueous vapours, suspended in the sir, are constantly electrified; requiring only the aid of a proper collector, to render the effects of their electricity at all times sensible. And for this reason, there may be justly said to be an electrical atmosphere within our zerial atmosphere. During a course of moderate weather, the electricity of the atmosphere is invariably positive; and exhibits a slux and restux, which generally causes it to encrease and decrease twice in every 24 hours. The moments of its greatest force are about 2 or 3 hours after the rising, and some time before and after the setting of the sun; those when it is weakest are from mid-day to about 4 o'clock. The periodical electricity of the atmosphere seems to be manifestly influenced by beat and cold. Hence it plainly appears, why we always find warm small rain to be but weakly electrised: when cold rain, which falls in large drops, is the most intensely electrished of any.'

Abstract of a Register of the Barometer, Thermometer, and Rain, at Lyndon in Rutland. By Thomas Barker, Esq. With the Rain in Surrey and Hampshire. For the Year 1791.

To this twenty-first annual register, communicated by Mr. Barker to the Royal Society, he has added, beside his customary account of the seasons, observations on the practice of milking ewes, which formerly prevailed in England, but which is now generally, if not altogether, discontinued. In some parts of the island, the practice, we believe, is still preserved.

Observations on the remarkable Failure of Haddocks, on the Coasts of Northumberland, Durham, and Yorkshire. In Two Letters, from the Rev. Cooper Abbs, to Dr. Blagden, Sec. R. S.

The shoal of haddocks, which visited these seas, generally lay about a league from the shore. It was about three miles in breadth, and extended along the whole coast, and the seccession was uninterrupted for three months. The poor were thus regularly supplied for many years with the means of employment and subsistence:—but, during the seasons of 1789, 1790, and 1791, the sailure was so considerable, that, by a moderate estimate, there was not a ten-thousandth part of the usual quantity taken. The cause of this sailure has been vatiously assigned.

It is certain that an aftonishing number were destroyed in the summer of 1789. Some sailors, on their return from Archan-

The Freedom of Human Action explained.

bserved, near the North Cape, a prodigious multitude lythe surface of the ocean. Of these some were dead, and
in so seeble a state as to be unable to sink in the water.
al of them were examined, and the found was found to be
instated. Mr. Abbs observes that, about this time, an
on happened in Mount Hecla; and he conjectures that
nic matter of a noxious quality might have burst out in the
ind have occasioned the destruction, to which the subsequent
e was owing.

e volume concludes with the usual lift of presents, and

XIII. The Freedom of Human Action explained and windicated, which the Opinions of Dr. Priestley on the Subject are particular considered. 8vo. pp. 148. 4s. Boards. Nicol.

E author, who has here revived our attention to the perplexing debate concerning liberty and necessity, underwhat he calls a new effort on the fide of liberty, in which is a confidence that most of his readers will wish him sucfor he observes, that 'we have something within us a would rejoice to see the decision in savour of liberty.' epossession, however, in savour of freedom must not be as argument. Philosophy rejects prejudice, and appeals its, and to sound reason. How stands the matter in this

motive of the number which may exist in a case of deliberation and choice; or, in other words, that the will is endowed .. with a property of so varying and fixing its volitions, as entitles it to be deemed strictly free.

Prop. IV. That whether the will be free, or not free, a definite volition will always be formed in definite circumstances : or, that, from the truth of a definite volition being formed in definite circumstances, no proof can be drawn either that the

will is free or necessary.

These propositions do not hang well together, especially the 3d and 4th; and the reasoning and explanations subjoined leave the great question far from being decided. The author confi-The author confiders the mind as having what he calls a felf-power, whereby motive-influence is not incompatible with free volition; so that a necessary cause may have a free effect. On this the theory refts; and he owns that, to a philosopher who thinks that no cause can have a free effect, his reasoning will seem impertinent.

Sometimes, this advocate for freedom writes like a necessitarian: indeed, in his reasoning on the prescience of the Deity, the doctrine of necessity is requisite to his argument.

Page 70 and 71, he fays: With us, on account of our many impersections, what is called moral certainty will ever have in it some degree of contingency; but with the Deity, who sees the minutest particular which can influence the will in its determinations, this certainty is no longer of a moral but of an absolute kind.'

For can, in this extract, the reasoning of the writer requires the substitution of must; otherwise, he makes a distinction without a difference between human moral certainty and divine absolute certainty . When the advocates for freedom argue after this manner, we are not suprized at their allowing, as our author does, farther on, that human liberty must be placed near the confines of necessity;' he might have added, on the Arength of his own theory, and thin partitions do their bounds divide.

We do not undertake to offer any thing decisive in the debate between the champions for liberty and for necessity, but only to detect that reasoning, on both sides, which appears to us weak and inconclusive.

We shall no doubt be required to notice other efforts by writers both for and against human freedom; and when we perceive each party loading the tenets, which they oppose, with pernicious consequences, and contending for the moral tendency of

The necessitarian may ask this writer, whether that which is abso-Lately contingent can become a matter of absolute certainty?

Izel's Transl. of Chevalier's Description of the Plain of Troy.

own doctrines; when we find Dr. Priestley afferting, ning predestination, "that if any system of speculative less can operate as an axe to the root of all virtue and its, it is this," and affirming of the doctrine of philosophicessity, "that it is singularly propitious to virtue, as, in ist proper sense of the word, every man is the maker of n fortune;" and find, on the other hand, this writer dephis inability to perceive the connection of necessity with, and arguing for the freedom of the will as the soul of the great principle of life, and the basis of conscience; by fairly conclude that they misunderstand each other; ere is a greater similarity of sentiment than their languages; and that, however the question may be decided, mohas nothing to apprehend.

XIV. Description of the Plain of Troy: with a Map of that on, delineated from an actual Survey. Read in French before Royal Society of Edinburgh in 1791, by the Author, M. Cher, Fellow of that Society, and of the Academics of Metz, el, and Rome. Translated from the Original not yet publishand the Version accompanied with Notes and Illustrations, by rew Dalzel, M. A. F. R. S, Edinburgh, Professor of Greek Principal Librarian in the University of Edinburgh. 410. 10s. 6d. Boards. Cadell.

Dalzel's Transl. of Chevalier's Description of the Plain of Troy. 97 that Mr. Pope's own map, (he having been ill served by his engraver, which sometimes happens to authors,) by no means corresponds with the text.

with respect to the tomb of Ilus, (says M. Chevalier,) Pope has evidently interpreted Homer's meaning too strictly, when he places it half way betwixt the camp of the Greeks and the city of Troy. That was not the spot which Homer meant to point out, when he tells us that the tomb of Ilus was in the middle of the plain. Strabo explains his meaning, by telling us, that Ilus was buried in the middle of the plain, because he was the first who had ventured to inhabit it.

As to the rest, his notion is perfectly right respecting the situation of the Grecian camp betwixt the two promontories, the confluence of the two rivers at no great distance from the ships, the general shape of the plain, the course of the Simois of greater extent than that of the Scamander, the distance of the city from the sea, and the two sources of the Scamander in the neighbourhood of the city. But what could be his motive for placing these last on the side opposite to that where they are found in reality? I bestewed a good deal of ressection on this circumstance, and with the greater anxiety that, among all those who have written any thing on the sub-

ject of the Troad, few are so interesting as Pope.

Might not we suppose that this eminent author, having remarked formewhere in the Iliad, that the sources of the Scamander were to the west; and accustomed, moreover, to consider the lest side of the map as the west, as is usually the case, did thus adjust every other situation, such as that of Sigéum, that of the Simois, &c. so as to agree with this sundamental principle? It is thus (if I may be allowed to suppose an eminent poet to be but an indifferent geographer) that the errors of the map in question may perhaps be accounted for, which, however, with all its impersections, must have cost Pope an infinite deal of pains, and required on his part an uncommon power of arrangement. This at least is the most satisfactory way I can discover of explaining how the same person might produce an erroneous map, and a most complete and accurate Essay on Homer's Battles.

Mr. Pope's essay, and M. Chevalier's map, ought therefore to go together, composing between them an accurate and

agreeable account of the Troade.

The city of Troy, according to the present writer, stood on the present scite of the modern village of Bounarbachi, distant four leagues from the sea, and which is the residence of an Aga, ruling with absolute sway the inhabitants of the Trojan plain, and the inserior Agas, to whom they are immediately subject. Bounarbachi is situated on the side of an eminence, exposed to every wind, at the termination of a spacious plain, the soil of which is rich and of a blackish colour. Close to the village is to be seen a marsh, covered with tall reeds; and the situation is impregnable on all sides, except at Erin (Homer's apress) the bill of wild sig trees, which extended between the Sexan gate, and the sources of the Scamander. These cirkey May 1793.

alzel's Transl. of Chevalier's Description of the Plain of Troy.

ances, agreeing with Homer's descriptions, strongly rt M. Chevalier's opinion concerning the situation of which he thinks proper to consirm by what he calls the ing strict mathematical demonstration:

he Scæan or western gate, was that which faced the plainthis gate the Trojans issued forth, in order to engage on that
; near this gate Hector stood, when Priam and Hecoba wanted
gade him from entering the lists with Achilles; and, lassly,
from the top of this gate that these unfortunate parents beheld
on perish near the sources of the Scamander ||.—The sources of
amander then lay in front and in view of the Scæan gate. This
as therefore on the west of the city. When it is once granted that
sact with respect to the position of the sources of the Scamander,
the allowed that I am right as to the situation of the city of
That this is to the east of the sources, is strictly and un-

nably demonstrated."

very interesting part of this work, is the account of the il mounds, or barrows, several of them 100 feet in diamethe base; and which the author maintains to be the identombs raised over the ashes of the heroes of the Trojan some of them he deems more ancient. He describes ularly the tombs of Esyetes, Ilus, Ajax, Hector, Achilles, clus, and Antilochus. We will extract, as a specimen, servations concerning the tomb of Achilles:

his curious mais of earth, raifed by the hands of the Greeks, tills. It is not now furrounded with elms, as it once was;

• Pull of this idea, and induced moreover by the magnitude of the barrow, which is the nearest to the sea, as well as by the fingular name of Dios-Tapé, the divine Tomb, still given to it by the Greek inhabitants of the Sigéan promontory, I previously pitched upon this as the most proper subject for the operation of digging which I advised.

 After my departure from Constantinople, means were found, by the help of some presents made to the commanding officers of the neighbouring fort, to accomplish this undertaking, in spite of the vigilance of the Turks. Towards the centre of the monument, two large stones were found leaning at an angle the one against the other, and forming a fort of tent, under which was prefently discovered a small statue of Minerva, seated in a chariot with four horses; and an arn of metal filled with ashes, charcoal, and human bones. This urn, which is now in the possession of the Comte de Choiseul, is encircled in sculpture with a vine branch, from which are suspended bunches of

grapes done with exquisite art.

Whether these are the ashes of Achilles, I pretend not to say; but most certainly they are the relics of some personage who paid a particular veneration to Minerva, fince they are accompanied with a statue of that goddess. Besides, he must have died in an age of the world when it was the practice to burn dead bodies, fince here are to be seen ashes, charcoal, and bones, still very distinguishable. be seen ashes, charcoal, and bones, still very distinguishable. When therefore I behold the urn of metal adorned with vine branches, I own I find it very difficult to prevent myself from thinking of that famous urn, the gift of Bacchus, and the workmanship of Vulcan, which Thetis gave to her son, and in which the Greeks deposited the ashes of their hero.

 But how, it will be asked, have these ashes been so long preserved? how have they resisted the inclemency of the seasons for more than three thousand years? It may be answered, because they were not exposed to the influence of the weather. The vault under which they were found, was covered with an immense stratum of find sand, upon which there was spread another still thicker of clay, and over all a high hill was reared. By these means, the urn was secured against all humidity and contact with the air, which are the two great causes of dissolution.

We have only to add, that Professor Dalzel seems to have done great justice to his original, which he has enriched with many learned annotations.

ART. XV. An entire and complete History, political and personal, of the Boroughs of Great Britain; to which is prefixed, an original Sketch of Constitutional Rights, from the earliest Period until the prefeat Time; and the Principles of our ancient Representation traced from the most authentic Records, supported by undeniable Tostimonies, and illustrated by a Variety of Notes and References, collected from the most respectable, legal, political, and historical Authorities. 8vo. 3 Vols. pp. 550 in each. 11. 1s. Boards. Riley, &c. 1792.

THE object of this important undertaking is to collect, into one view, the abuses that exist in the present state reprefentation.

History of the Boroughs of Great Britain.

on, and thereby to awaken the public to a just sense of nagnitude. The author has arranged, under distinct all that relate to each borough. 1. Political character. cient state and representation. 3. Corporation. 4. Right clion. 5. Number of voters. 6. Returning officer. Fron. He thus explains more fully what he means to ize under these titles:

ne first head contains those circumstances of independence or on which characterizes every borough, from its being prescrip-corporate, free, or dependent on aristocracy, or having its franchises limited to a few, or extended to the community, the second contains the original state and situation of the county, town, and those ancient circumstances that may serve to actor its present political establishment. To this is added, the time rist sending members to parliament, after cities, &c. were sumbly Edward I. and thus restored a representation which had been, me sew exceptions, suspended from the conquest until the 23d above king.

ne third contains the date and conflitution of every charter, by every corporate city and borough were vested with these exprivileges. The municipal officers are particularised, and any tentary decision stated, that materially relates to the privileges ne establishment in any of the said cities or boroughs. The sourth contains all the resolutions, and the most important

he fourth contains all the refolutions, and the most important nat have passed the house, or committees, relative to the right ng. Where no resolution has passed the house respecting elecmehile, the right, as practised and acknowledged, is inserted. peers, he has thought it proper to include county representation in his work.

Prefixed to this history, we find a very elaborate discussion of constitutional rights, in which the following positions are asferted and enforced:

First.—That, as our constitution was, from the earliest periods, founded on liberty, it should not be destroyed, as if it were the government of despotism.

Secondly.—That, as all our political evils arise from the abuse of the practice, and not from defect of principle, the original purity of its spirit may be restored without violence to the body.

Thirdly.—That, as the corrupt state of representation originates with all parties, its ancient purity is only to be revived by the unanimous and difinterested efforts of every rank and degree in the kingdom.

Fourthly.—That, as nothing but a patriotic and difinterested resolution, in all, to recur to the first principles of our constitution can restore us to the entire possession of our ancient liberties, it is not the fall of one party, or the rife of another, that should be the object of public pursuit. And,

Fifthly.—That, as the restoration of our liberties is equally due to all, no difference of opinion, fituation, or circumstances, should prevent every individual peaceably uniting in the attainment of this invaluable blessing.'

This differtation concludes with Mr. Granville Sharpe's plan for reforming the representation.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

For M A Y, 1793.

LAW.

Art. 16. Decisions of the Court of King's Bench, upon the Laws relating to the Poor. Originally published by Edmund Bott, Esq. of the Inner Temple, Barritter at Law. Now revised, corrected, and confiderably enlarged; with Tables of the Cases; and a complete Digest of the principal Matters; the third Edition; in which the Statutes; the reported Decisions, from the Reign of Queen Elizabeth to Michaelmas Term the Thirty-third of George the Third; and many Cases never before published upon this Subject, are properly arranged; and the whole System of the Poor Laws placed in a clear and perspicuous Point of View; by Francis Const, Esq. of the Middle Temple, Barrister at Law. 8vo. 2 Vols. About 900 Pages in each. 11. 58. Boards. Butterworth. 1793.

THIS edition of the late Mr. Bott's Poor Laws has long been expected with anxiety by the profession. Mr. Const might have fulfilled the duties of an editor by adding the new decisions to those before published, but, finding that many of them could not be included under the former arrangement, he has been at the labour of re-com-

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the work. The extent of this undertaking may be in some e judged from the following account:

ne cases have been compared with the original reports, where ports are published, and the errors, where any errors occurred, ed.

ie acts of parliament have also been collated with the Statutes; the last region, by Mr. Serjeant Rumingum, has been reto, as well as the former one, by Mr. Ruff head.

he governal titles of the former edition are still preferved; but so all divisions of the chapters have been changed, and many septers added: if, however, any case should, on inspection, to be misplaced, the editor trusts that the difficulty of arranging multiplicity of cases, frequently confused and sometimes con-

ary, will be recollected.

o obviate any difficulty which might arife respecting references former edition, a table is presized to each volume, shewing the cases before published are to be found in this work, and g out the several transpositions which the editor has made. By ables it will be perceived that some of the old cases are omitted; a reference to the body of the work, it will be seen that they application to the subject; that the point in question was lest ded; or that cases of better authority supply their place, though in this edition there are nearly one thousand cases more ere before published, yet there are some to be found in the which, from their want of correctness and authenticity, have

abound, have been deemed sufficient to deter young men from entering on the pursuit, and from prosecuting their studies with cheerfulness. To these Mr. Preston's advice is, in the words of Virgil, " Ne cede malis, sed contra audentior ito."

Art. 18. An Explanation of the Practice of Law: containing the Elements of Special Pleading, reduced to the Comprehension of every one. Also, Elements of a Plan for a Reform: shewing that the Plaintiff's Costs in a Common Action, which at present amount to, from 251. to 351. need not exceed 101.; and those of the Defendant, which are now from 121. to 201. need not exceed 61. By John Frederic Schiefer, Esq. of Lincoln's Inn. 8vo. pp. 340. 6s. Boards. Pheney. 1792.

This gentleman points out, in a lively manner, many abuses existing in the practice of the law, and proposes a plan to lessen the heavy

expences now attendant on legal proceedings.

IRELAND.

Art. 19. An accurate Report of the Speech delivered by the Right Hon. John Foster, Speaker of the House of Commons of Ireland, Feb. 27th, 1793, in a Committee of the whole House, on the Bill for allowing Roman Catholics to vote at the Elections of Members of Parliament in that Kingdom, to prove that this Bill has a direct Tendency to subvert the Protestant Establishment in Ireland, and to separate that Kingdom for ever from Great Britain. 8vo. pp. 52. 15. 6d. Debrett.

The application of the Irish Roman Catholics to Government, for the redress of their grievances, and for the enlargement of their franchises, having so happily terminated in their favour, it is wholly unnecessary for us to take farther notice of this speech against the

bill, than merely to announce its publication.

MEDICAL.

Art. 20. Treatise on the Gout, wherein is delivered a new Idea of its proximate Cause, and consequent Means of Relief; written with a View to excite further Researches into the Nature, and to lessen present Reserve in the Treatment, of that Disease By Thomas

Jeans, M. D. 8vo. pp. 108. 28. Cadell. 1792.

The pre-difposition to gout,' in the author's own words, 'consists in a general debility, with an excess of this debility prevalent in the alimentary canal, from the stomach to the anus, and a predominant sympathy or consent betwixt this great officinal organof the body and the joints.'—If our readers be farther desirous of knowing why different joints are affected with gout, they are to be informed that this arises from different parts of the intestinal tube being affected: that the large intestines sympathize with the little joints, and the less intestines with the greater joints: that gout mounts regularly from joint to joint, and from gut to gut; that the spinster and is intestinum resum, being constricted, avenge themselves on the great toes; while the colon and coccum naturally look to the ankle; and so on, till the stomach directs its attack against the trunk itself.—With respect to the snew idea of the proximate cause, we are told that the proximate H 4

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epending on the nervous system, puzzles us with all that at subtility of that inexplicable part of the machine, and, it will, at the end of all research, be found a phasm, not man to embrace and retain; —and then, as to the new relief consequent on this new idea of the proximate cause, as far as regards us, are evanescent subtilities and phasms, e have neither embraced, nor retained.

A practical Treatife on the Efficacy of Stizolobium, or Cow-(the Dolichos pruvieus of Linnæus,) internally administered, in les occasioned by Worms. To which are added Observations or Anthelmintics of the West Indies. By William Chamber-Surgeon. 5th edit. 8vo. pp. 92. Printed for the Author.

efficacy of this medicine, (cowbage,) and the fafety of adagit, are here afferted on the faith of feveral cases, which her occurred in Mr. Chamberlaine's practice, or have been icated to him by others.—The medicine, next in point of as a vermifuge, is said to be a strong decoction of the bark afterd cabbage tree, described by Mr. Robins, of St. Mary's, under the name Geoffrea, Inermis.

An Address to the Faculty, and the Public, on the Expediency thissing a Fund for the Benefit of Widows and Orphans of Men, in the Counties of Durham and Northumberland, and lown of Newcallie upon Tyne By Frederick Glenton, Sur-8vo. pp. 36. Hall and Elliot, Newcalle. 1792.

outhor of this little address writes with a degree of earnessness

The proper idea to be formed of the disease which I have descriped, and have endeavoured to treat, is, that it originates and confifts in a fudd n, a ftrong, an I extensive spafn. That, from the whole of its phenomena, and from the analogies and facts to which I have appealed, there is reason to apprenend the spasm to be connected with a gouty diathefis: that a combination of debility and irritation, accompanied by an inflammatory temperament, may be its preximate cause: that by the prevalence of one or the other of these tendencies. the employment of bleeding is to be cautiously regulated: and lastly, that as we have sufficient ground for presuming, that the eruption is falutary and critical, it must be proper to encourage it, in the conduct of a rational practice.'

POETRY and DRAMATIC.

Art. 25. The Adventures of Telemachus. In Blank Verse, from the French of M. Fenelon, Archbishop of Cambray. A. M. and formerly Feliow of St. John's College, Cambridge. 12mo. 3 Vols. pp. 1047. 10s. 6d.—boards. Sael.

Though Fenelon's Adventures of Telemachus be written in profe, the work is universally allowed to have no small share of poetical merit. It may not perhaps, in strict propriety of language, deserve the came of an epic poem: but it possesses so many of the leading characters of the epic, and is so rich in the higher excellencies of fine writing, invention, imagery, and fentiment, that the want of numerous melody is scarcely to be regretted. At least it may be considently presumed, that no attempt to reduce it to the measure of verse, whether in its original or in any other language, will ever be

an improvement on this justly-admired production.

With respect to the present translation, the author of which is the Rev. Mr. Youde, we readily allow it confiderable merit for its closeness of adherence to the meaning of the original; and much ingenuity is manifested by Mr. Y. in bringing so exact a translation under the refriction of numbers: -but, after all the pains which this performance must have cost, we cannot think the general effect more pleasing than that of a profe translation. The verses have not a sufficient portion of poetical diction, to compensate for the want of the ease and freedom of prose; and the reader, in parusing the work, is perpetually fenfible of the artificial stiffness, while he is seldom gratified by the peculiar graces, of poetry. In justification of this general criticism, we shall transcribe a part of Mentor's instructions to Idomeneus, coneming the encouragement of agriculture.

· Almost all men to marriage are inclin'd; There's nothing hinders it but poverty. If you oppress them not with taxes, they Their wives and children will with ease maintain; For still the earth, the ever-grateful earth, On those who cultivate her with due care, Largely bestows her fruits: to those alone, Who grudge their labour, she makes no return. But the laborious and industrious part, Still, the more numerous their children are, The wealthier are, provided that the prince

of Monthly Catalogue, Poetry and Dramatic.

Impoverish them not. From earliest years Their little ones begin to be a help. The youngest take the sheep to pasture; those Further advanced in years, have now the care Of num'rous flocks; the eldelt in the field Affish their father in his work. Mean-while The mother, with the family at home, For her dear children, who must needs return Fatigued with toil, and for her spouse, prepares A plain repast. Her's is the care to milk The cows and sheep; and milk in plenteous streams Is feen to flow. She makes a cheerful fire, Round which the family each evening chant, Well pleas'd, the fongs of innocence and peace, Till fummon'd by the gentle call of fleep. Cheefe, chefnuts, the prepares, and fruits preferv'd, All fresh as if just gather'd from the tree. The shepherd with his pipe returns, and chants, To th' affembled family, the fongs He from the neighb'ring village-fwains hath learnt. The ploughman homeward with his plough returns, His weary'd oxen, with their necks bow'd down, Move flowly on, regardless of the goad. With the day's work all toil and trouble ends. Sleep, with his poppies, which at Heaven's command Art. 26. The Iristman in London; or, The Happy African. A Farce in two Acts, performed at the Theatre Royal, Covent Garden. By William Macready. 8vo. 1s. Longman. 1793.

When a man professedly writes a farce and calls it a farce, we know what we have to expect; and we neither feel the disappointment nor the disgust of reading comedy in the title page, and finding farce in the piece. Those who, in their boyish days, have been diverted at Bartholomew sair, and who have perused this farce, will recoilect in it incidents which formerly excited their laughter. If they can laugh again, changing the scene from a booth to the dignissed boards of a Theatre Royal, or even if they find the majority of their neighbours laughing around them, so be it; let the laugh be innocent, and we have no wish to see it interrupted.

An Irishman is almost as dear to the English stage as Harlequin is to the Italian; and we do not find that the Irishman in this farce is deficient in family features. As a specimen, which will probably make our readers smile, we will insert what the author himself calls (without inquiring what he means, for his meaning is beyond us,) a bit of

a planxty.

Song. Murtock.

If you'd travel the wide world all over,
And fail acrofs quite round the globe,
You must fet out on horseback from Dover,
And fail unto sweet Balinrobe.

Tis there you'll see Ireland so famous,
That was built before Adam was breech'd,
Who liv'd in the reign of king Shamus,
Ere he was at the Boyne over-reach'd.

Chorus.

With my whack, fal de ral, &c. &c. &c.

Oh the land of Shillelah for me.

'There you'll see Ulster, and Munster, and Leinster,
Connaught, and sweet Kilkenny likewise,
That city where first, as a spinster,
I open'd these pair of black eyes.
In this town there is fire without smoaking,
For a penny you'll buy fifty eggs,
And then there's such wit, without joking,
And rabbits without any legs.
With my whack, &c.

'There you'll fee my ancestors glorious,
The sons of the brave O's and Macs,
Who died whene'er they were victorious,
And after that ne'er turn'd their backs.
Our heads are stout and full of valour,
Our hearts are wise and full of brains,
In love we ne'er blush nor change colour,
And the ladies reward all our pains,
With my whack, &c.

Saint Patrick is still our protector, He made us an island of saints,

MONTHLY CATALOGUE, Peetry and Dramatic.

Drove out snakes and toads like an Hector, And ne'er that his eyes to complaints. Then if you would live, and be frisky, And never die when you're in bed, Come to Ireland, and tipple the whiskey, And drink ten years after you're dead.
With my whack fal de ral, &c. &c. &c.

The land of Shillelah for me."

7. Too Learned by Half; or, The Philosopher Outwitted. A rce of one Act. By J. Sharpe. 12mo. 6d. Robinsons. nay be no more than a mere act of justice to the friends of Mr. e, to believe that their request had no concern in this publicaunless perhaps in unavailing endeavours to withhold it from the

8. Miscellanies in Prose and Verse. Crown 8vo. pp. 240. s. fewed. Printed at Edinburgh. London, Richardson. ong the multitude of little poems which compole this miscellany, d the following, entitled,

An Epitaph. · Mute here a merry poet lies; He only made pretence To fimple, limping, laughing lines, Which never gave offence.

· Himself was peaceful, like his muse,

For almost nobody has taste or time

To feel or cultivate the sweets of rhime,'ecouplets which would difgrace the poet's corner of a newspaper. id we not seen the word Edinburgh in the title, we should have pected the author to have been a North Briton from his making

wn'd rhime to band; and from his almost nobody."

In this miscellany are to be found short Remarks on English Plays d Farces, transcribed, we are told in the presace, from the library a country gentleman. They fearcely merit publication. That mirable farce "The Citizen," written by Mr. Murphy, is thus ily and ill-naturedly criticized: 'When our moderns try to write the ftyle of natural character and conversation, they fall into a medof infipidity and affectation. They can bear no comparison to e old poets, Shakespeare, Johnson, and Fletcher, whom they mean imitate.' p. 188. Ex uno difce omnes.

POLITICAL and COMMERCIAL.

rt. 29. Considerations on the Advantage of Free Ports, under certain Regulations, to the Navigation and Commerce of this Country. By Robert Peckham, Efq. Lord Mayor of London in 1784. 4to.

pp. 30. 2s. Nicol. 1792. The author of this pamphlet recommends the expediting commeral transactions, and shortening the delays of custom-house forms, by lowing the products of all countries brought hither agreeably to our ivigation laws, to be landed free; to be entered and deposited in oper warehouses; and transferable warrants to be granted to the aporters; that such as are admissible for home consumption may be ken out on payment of duties; and such as are for exportation, be :- shipped on payment of the charges of deposit. This is, in some easure, the mode of managing the imports of our East India Comany; and the writer is very fanguine in the tendency of its general rtension, to render this island (favoured by its immediate situation etween the northern and southern countries of Europe,) the general spot (to adopt a modish term,) for the productions of all other counies. It may be observed, in general, that trade is more befriended y releasing it, as prudence may dictate, from existing restrictions, can by firming to bend its operations to the views of legislators.

Ist. 30. A short Answer to the Declaration of the Persons calling themselves the Friends of the Liberty of the Press. By John Bowles, 6d. Downes. Esq. of the Inner Temple, Barrister at Law. 8vo.

1793-It reflects no discredit on the Friends of the Liberty of the Press, hat they have an antagonist in an ingenious and learned advocate for he afficiations; fince all his ingenuity and learning have only enabled sim, in reply to their declaration, to affert the right of individuals to profecute for public as well as private offences; to extol the impariality of British juries; and to accuse the friends of the liberty of he press of having assembled in direct and insolent defiance of the somest verdict of twelve jurors, and in support of the licentious, and mconstitutional freedom of the press. Personal invective, and ge-

neral

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nd irrelevant affertions, can never injure a cause which rests on a basis as that of the right of Britons to the free use of the without fear of being punished for any exercise of this freedom strily prohibited by the law of the land.

The real Grounds of the present war with France. By John wiles, Esq. 8vo. pp. 74. 1s. 6d. Debrett. 1793. der to justify the present war with France, Mr. Bowles, after al view of the principles and spirit which at present govern the of that nation, compares the decree of fraternity, of No-1 19, 1792, with the explanation afterward given of it French minister, which confined its operation to the fole which the general will of a nation, clearly and unequivocally ed, should call the French nation to its assistance and fraternity; concludes that the dignity, the welfare, and the independof this country, rendered it impossible to accept an explanation, itill maintains a right of France to interfere in the internal afother countries. Mr. B. next quotes several articles of the of December 15th, which lays down a plan by which the opeof bestowing liberty was to be performed; and he then makes xtracts from addresses presented to the convention from Enghe existence of sedition in this country, and that it has been ed by members of the French convention. On these grounds, atains that, for the fafety as well as the dignity of Great Briwar with France was become necessary; and, on a general ref the whole case, he concludes that it is much more difficult to ate the lengthened moderation, than the tardy energy, of the government. - The necessity of the war, after all Mr.

the will of the majority of the members of any nation is the law, and with representing it as an erroneous and dangerous position, that no laws have any efficacy nor obligation, nor government a just or legal duration, after the majority of the governed have chosen to withdraw their consent and allegiance, or to supersede them by other institutions. The majority may, it is true, judge weakly, and may at foolishly or unjustly: but if there be any such thing as a political axiom, it is furely this, that all power and law must originate in the will of the majority. If the power of a state is to be delegated, who shall determine to whom, and in what manner, it shall be delegated? furely, the majority. This writer takes much pains to prove, that the present heavy burthen of taxes could not be relieved by any change of government; and that even, if the taxes were reduced, the burthens of the lower classes of society would not be diminished. people are even told that, in taxes, what is taken from them returns again on them like the dew in showers. After all that is here advanced, it is not quite certain that, if, without any violent concussion, but by the mild operation of a reform, the expences of government were materially leffened, and confequently the taxes reduced, the landholder and manufacturer could not afford to give the labourer better wages; nor, even on the supposition that wages remained the same, that the condition of the lower classes of the people would not be effentially meliorated. In one thing, we perfectly agree with this writer, that taxes are not more likely to be diminished by war, than by the peaceable operation of government; and because we are not convinced by any thing here advanced, that heavy taxes are beneficial to trade, we must deprecate a war which will necestarily increase them.

It would be injustice to the writer of this pamphlet, to overlook the fingular expressions of piety contained in the following paragraph.

Speaking of Mr. Paine, he fays,

I am tempted to believe, that Providence referved the calamities of his doctrine for a guiltier people, and the scourge was averted from our backs by the Supreme interference; and surely, if we be permitted to believe that any nation is still its care, or any system entitled to its protection, it will be pardonable to suppose that it may be the freest people and the sublimest constitution.

We have read that Hampden, in despair of liberty, had once embarked for America, but was detained by an order of council; and thus was the soul of freedom prevented from migrating from Britain, by the very tyranny it was destined to destroy. Alas! why does the corruption of our manners and the general depravation forbid us to believe, that the same superintending care averted Paine from our

coasts, which would not suffer Hampden to leave them?'

We are surprized to find such a tribute of respect to the memory of Hampden, in a work which breathes so little of Hampden's free

spirit.

Art. 33. The Example of France, a Warning to Britain. By Arthur Young, Eq. F. R. S. 8vo. pp. 146. 2s. 6d. Richardson. 1793.

The ground, on which all the reasoning and all the declamation of this pamphlet are erected, is the paradoxical opinion of the late.

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Jenyns; that, " in politics, all principles that are spect-right are practically wrong " Ancient doctrines, which have eccived as axioms by all the advocates for British freedom, for han a century pail, Mr. Young refutes --- no by one dash of his pen; and he substitutes in their room a word. in his hands, performs all the wonders of political necro--exteriment. Appealing to the French revolution as an entum crucis against popular government, he decides on the best of governing men with a degree of precipitation, with which ald probably never have thought himself warranted to decide beil method of cultivating lucerae or madder. se opening of this work, he boldly pronounces that the applicatheory to matters of government is a furprizing imbecility [he ly means a surprizing proof of imbecility,] in the human mind: he form after affifts us to account for the extravagance of this n, by informing us that he has a constitutional abhorrence of of all trust in abstract reasoning, and consequently a reliance on experience. Experiments are certainly very commendaigs, provided that they be observed accurately, and that only I legitimate conclusions be drawn from them. Let us fee what s writer, who has been fo long in the habit of experimenting, of the experiment in which he has fuch entire confidence. Young's first attempt is to give a view of the real state of , under the feveral heads of government, perfonal liberty, and of property. Under these heads, he states facts, which we disposed either to controvert, or to palliate, and which cerprove that government is not settled in France, that law is not d by the Parisian mob, and that, under the plea of public ne-

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mited establishment of despotism.

The politions, which Mr. Y. afferts with an air of confidence, as if were demonstrated truths, and urges with a degree of veheice, which would feem to imply that the prosperity and the very tence of his country depend on their universal reception, are such hele; that to suppose that the House of Commons purports to be representatives of the people is mere theory, and to call them is a very inaccurate mode of expression; — That the electors of abers of parliament do not delegate powers, nor entrust privileges, merely exercise a privilege, which the constitution has given to n, of chusing a third branch of the legislature; - That the memwhen elected, and in combination with the other branches of the Sture, assume and possess and give themselves such powers and pris as those did not possess who sent them; --- That the prosperity happiness, which we have enjoyed for a century, is owing prey to the House of Commons NOT speaking the will of the people; -That if parliament act from the immediate impulse of the people. wildom of the community is governed by the folly of it; ——That, he present circumstances, moderate reform, or any reform at all rinciple, would be a sure step to all that followed reform in France, acobinism, anarchy, and blood; -That the best method of taming wany-headed monster, would be by a militia rank and file of property, isting of a regiment of a thousand cavalry in every county of mote extent; -- That the licentiousness of the press, permitted to ameful and destructive a length as we have of late years experienced ngland, ought to be rettrained; for where this is in any degree ald, the general instruction of the lower classes must become the seed :volt; -in fine, that the friends of reform are strenuous for Sunday charity schools, because they prepare the people for revolt; and , to teach, is to bewilder—to enlighten, is to destroy.

re trust that our beloved country, whose genuine constitution, ded on the good old principle that all civil power must orite with the people, we have always revered, is not yet so far doned to political infatuation as to adopt the maxims of this r. We dread anarchy, and we abhor massacre and plunder, as has Mr. Young, or any one: but we cannot be convinced, by all he has advanced concerning the affairs of France, that, in order revent these evils, it is necessary to relinquish every idea of remataive government, to admit the despotic sway of self-assumed er, and place the merit of a legislative body precifely in not speakable will of the people whom they govern; to arm the rich against wor; and to consign the lower classes of society to perpetual ignore and slavery. We, above all, enter our earnest protest against injustice of construing every effort toward the reformation of abuses. MAX 1793.

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nd corruptions, into a deliberate purpose to overturn the state; holding up the character of an advocate for reformation as ject of as much jealousy and distrust as that of a professed

. Remarks on the Hon. Thomas Erskine's Desence of Thomas, and on his Assertion that the Monarchy of Great Britain is we. 8vo. 6d. Bell, Oxford-street. 1793. author declares himself desirous of moving in the middle path in the opposite parties whose rage and intemperance have of roduced such division into the political world. He professes to oderate man: but we see no evidence of moderation in him, the in his abilities, and even there we doubt whether he be much under par to rank with middling writers.

5. Sentiments on a War with France. 8vo. pp. 36. 15. Flexney. 1793.

r the numerous apologies for the present war, which have apthis writer's sentiments have not sufficient novelty to require lar notice. Some readers may ask why he did not himself obnat filence on political subjects, which to him always appeared y of individuals in a representative government?

6. Truth and Reason against Place and Pension. Being a candid mination of the Pretentions and Assertions of the Society held he Crown and Anchor, and of similar Associations in various s of the Metropolis. Addressed to John Reeves, Esq. and his ciates. Svo. 6d. Ridgway. 1793.

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executive government in its stead; they aim at an alteration, not ealy in the forms, but in the rationale and principles of the English And to fum up all, they look for a total equality with respect to the rank, order, and pretentions of every individual, except what arises from property; which they would equalize as far as it is practicable, by abolishing the right of primogeniure. It is in a view of these two subjects or one of them, that I apprehend the difference of opinion is supposed to exist; and as to the first, it is probably thought by fome, that many of the alterations are highly defirable, some impracticable, and the whole dangerous, as it suppofes a degree of integrity in the person composing the government. which the truth of human nature will not permit us to expect. By others, it is probably thought, that they are highly centrable, but that they cannot be obtained in our present circumstances, unless through the medium of a revolution; the hazard and misery of which, the value and necessity of these projected improvements will not in their opinion justify. Others, perhaps, may think that they are in themselves fit to be considered; that they are both wise and practicable, at least in a degree, and that if obtsined they would tend to prevent the very confideration of the other fet of alterations: which I believe, there are none who really belong to the whig party but confider as leading to immediate anarchy, and as calculated only to scatter a nation like the fand of the sea-shore, when it is bear about by the billows of a tempethous ocean.'

The mischies apprehended from a revolution, are admitted by the author in their full extent; and the most probable means of preventing it he apprehends to be, immediately beginning a temperate reform, according to the second plan mentioned in the preceding extract. The ultimate drift of this pamphlet is to persuade the people that their only remedy against threatening anarchy or

desposism, is a whig administration.

MISCELLANFOUS.

Art. 40. A Congratulatory Address to the Rev. John Cross, Vicar of Bradford, on the Prospect of his Recovery from a dangerous Disease, to a State of Spiritual Health and Suvation. To which is added, A Letter to the Rev. James Wood, of Leeds, an Elogo to the Memory of John Wesley, and an Address to the Inhabitants of Bradford; with diverting Incidents, Anecdotes, Bons Mots. &c. 8vo. pp. 197. 25. 6d. sewed. No Book'eller's Name. 1791.

Will the heart of this witty and formidable antagonish to the Vicar of Bradford never relent! For goodness sake, friend Trim, as you are mighty, be merciful! As you have gotten your antagonish under, do not thus continue to pummel the poor man while he is down!

For our brief notices of the sormer publications relative to this literary squabble, see Rev. vol.lxxviii. p. 354. also New Series, vol. i. p. 339; vol. iv. p. 114; and vol. v. p. 473.

N. B. This little article has been for some time accidentally mislaid.
THEOLOGY, POLEMICS, and ECCLESIASTICAL AFFAIRS.

Art. 11. A Charge delivered to the Clergy of the Diocefe of Durham, at the Primary Vifitation of that Diocefe, in the Year 1792. By Saute, Lord Bishop of Durham 4to, pp. 37. 18. (a. Payne, 1792.

^{*} A name allumed by the Rev. Mr. Edward Balewyn.

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were to consider this charge merely as a literary production, ld be inclined to ascribe to it a high degree of merit. It is written with great accuracy and elegance, and it discovers genuity and ability:—but it chiefly demands attention on active political principles and spirit; and on this ground we ege ourselves incapable of giving it our entire approbation, the reverend author is of opinion, that the peaceful and profiate of this country is such as ought to preclude all discontent; represents the present spirit of reform as pregnant with an inmischief. Much is said on the danger of seditious principle of on the necessity of the interposition of the magistrates in g seditious offences; but no precise explanation is given of ciples themselves, nor of the offences which are supposed to from them.

ing the dangerous innovations which are deprecated, is the rethe statutes, enacted for protecting the sundamental doctrines
tianity from blasphemy and corruption. These laws are conis necessary to the very existence of the establishment, and cony of the constitution; and it is seriously urged, in vindication
laws from the charge of persecution, that they restrain no
rivate sentiments; pretend to no control over the mind;
e no other limit to public professions, but such as is calculated
one peace and charity among all parties; such as was due to
and religion, and to the honour of God and his revelation,
untenancing the rancour of uncharitable asperities, by forthe indecency of scandalous investives against the national
and the outrages of infidelity and blasphemy.

falous invectives against any body of men are certainly griev-

lectrine of some ancient sects, and the declared opinions of a a Spinoza, or a Hammon, in modern times, have feemed to he question in the affirmative, such philosophers as these have arded as phenomena in the moral world little less wonderful nters in the natural. What credit, then, can be given to the that the doctrine of atheism is on a sudden generally prothe legislative body of a great nation, consisting of upfeven flundred persons? We have too much considence in agth and clearness of the evidence on which the first principle ion is founded, not to conceive it in the highest degree imthat this should be the case; and we cannot but regret, for s of the cause of religion as well as that of freedom, that non should have been taken up by the ingenious anthoress of phlet now before us, on grounds which can fairly bring ne charge of atheism only to a single individual. gret, that a writer of Mrs. More's talents and merit should n the present cry against the French nation, as to give it as son, that atheism will be the favoured and the popular tenet ie, and to draw a conclusion from this supposed fact against dom of the press. Can it be necessary, after all the experipast ages, to repeat, that violent restrictions on the freedom alation are as injudicious with respect to society, as they are s to the individual?

meet with several just remarks, and much elegance of lanin this pamphlet: but we cannot add that it has served to raise is of the liberality or the candour of the writer. e profits of this publication are to be given to the French emilergy.

SINGLE SERMON.

. Silent Submission to the Will of God. Preached at Brentford, 17, 1793, on Account of the Death of Mr. William Aiton, his 'Sy's Principal Gardener at Kew. By W. Smith. 8vo. pp. 32. fold!

is discourse, the pious preacher has done ample, but not more ich, justice to the character and memory of Mr. Aiton; whose tife was that which he derived from his great skill in his botanisession. We, who knew the man, have good reason to believe e testimony here borne to his worth—his genuine piety, his ary morality, and his extensive benevolence,—is no more than due. Real merit is sometimes exaggerated in suneral panebut this is not the case in the present instance.

he biographical part of this encomium may be acceptable to four readers, who have witnessed the happy effects of Mr. care and skill in the management of the royal botanic garden

, we shall transcribe the following particulars:
r. Aiton was a native of Hamilton, in Scotland. He was bora
year 1731, and came to this country in the summer of 1754.
Ronishment, I have heard him relate his early industry and unapplication to business.

these means, and the blessing of heaven accompanying them, lities and usefulness were soon perceived, acknowledged, and ed. In the year 1759, he was pointed out to the Princess er of Wales, and his present Majesty, as a man the best qualitation of proper to arrange and form a botanical garden at Kew. their successive protection and encouragement, he studied and

Laboured

CORRESPONDENCE.

ed for these last thirty-sour years; collecting from every corner country, and procuring from the remotest climes, the most rare luable productions of the vegetable creation. How far he has ded in this arduous, this useful, and laudable pursuit, the present if that place, the accurate and elegant description, lately pubof it by himself, with the unanimous approbation and praise of psecients in the science of botany, are, and I trust shall continue es to be, the most undeniable and ample testimonies.

Ir. Aiton's character as a man, confidering our present fallen was honourable for human nature. Without controversy, it be said of him, what it were to be wished could be said of more, his rising in the world went hand in hand with the good will and reable subsistence of all around him. To the meanest labourer

him, he behaved with affability and gentlenefs.

o him the poor man, who could, and would work, feldom or fued for bread in vain. Multitudes in the fame line of business, patronage and recommendation, are now comfortably settled in orld, with their families—In a word, as he had for a considerable shis life been placed in the highest sphere of his profession, so racked the notice and acquired the approbation of many, from west to the very highest rank: for I am permitted to say, That often enjoyed very particular marks of the bounty and savour most amiable Soversign. Allow me to add farther, that not as our friend universally known and esteemed in his own country this name and same have extended to distant kingdoms, and ry quarter of the globe. I myself have found them passports

MONTHLY REVIEW,

For JUNE, 1793.

ART. I. Travels through Swifferland, Italy, Sicily, the Greek Islands, to Confiantinople; through Part of Greece, Ragusa, and the Dalmatian Isles; in a Series of Letters to Pennoyre Watkins, Esquire, from Thomas Watkins, A.M. In the Years 1787, 1788, 1789. 8vo. 2 Vols. pp. 451. 365. 12s. Boards. Cadell. 1792.

DURING the ages of ignorance, and while the intercourse between different countries was little cultivated, fo many fleange things presented themselves to the view of the earliest travellers, the reason of which they could not comprehend, that every object affumed, under their pens, a wonderful These wonders, however, gradually diminishappearance. ed as favage antipathies wore out, and as men of distant lands grew more familiar with each other; and they at length sunk down to ordinary occurrences, by the discovery that the specific characters of human nature are the same every where; and that observable varieties are impressed chiefly by climate and local circumstances, which influence education, religious notions, and modes of government. We are therefore much better pleased—at least for the sake of novelty—in attending a sensible observer from stage to stage, to pick up these varieties, and to trace the fources of them, than in suffering our attention to bewholly employed, at the most celebrated places, on forms of government, descriptions of courts, palaces, galleries of pictures, and statues. These subjects have been thoroughly exhanked; while, till of late years, the people have been in a great measure overlooked; and every object, when well described, is anticipated, and circumscribes the labours of those travellers who undertake the detail of new tours.

Mr. Watkins is an agreeable companion; and journeying with him on paper is so easy a mode of conveyance, that we regretted the parting with him at the last stage. It is an old observation, that every book should be complete in itself, with-Vol. XI.

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ferring to other works; if Mr. W. therefore gives a brief n of the government of the countries through which he , persons of confined reading, and who have not easy access her authorities, will fee no reason to complain of the intion. A few specimens will bring our readers better acted with Mr. W. than any thing which we can add. e have the following letter dated from Neufchatel: lad we found between Bafil and Bienne a country abounding in ich landskip as we have seen on the greater part of our Swifs we should have been surfeited with delicacies; but fortunately et with scenes, which from their variety were calculated to reand strengthen, not cloy our appetites, being similar to those d left behind us in the descent of Urseren, such as mountains, precipices, and water-falls. We lay the first night at Munplace too fmall for a town, and too large for a village, and the morning arrived at Bienne, the capital of its republic, and an f the cantons. We found it well built, and well kept, or, in words, as clean as any town we had visited in Swifferland. It ated at the foot of Mount Jura, in a fine country, rich in pasture, and vines, but the wine is not much esteemed. Of the goent of these smaller republics, I shall not enter into a detail, as already put your patience to a fevere trial, in writing those of ntons. Let me only observe, that this of Bienne is aristocratic, ing of a great and leffer council; the latter was for some time absolute, and even now indeed enjoys much the greater share of



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erally filent, thoughtful, and melancholy. He was for some tin the inhabitant of this island, which belongs to the states of Berne; an tey (to their disgrace be it spoken) were prevailed upon by the goernment of Geneva to drive him from an asylum, in which other-

ife he probably would have continued to his death.

We crossed over from this island to the little town of Neuville, here we lay that night, and the next morning travelled through a puntry of vineyards along the lake, which here takes its name from leusschatel, where we arrived in a few hours after our departure from leuville. This town is most pleasantly situated on the side of a steep ill that rises from the water, and is much the best built of any lat we have hitherto seen in Swisserland. Its situation, together with the abundance, the excellence, and the moderate price of provisions, take it a place of great resort for foreigners, and consequently its improvement is progressive. We saw several workmen busily employed the construction of some handsome dwelling houses, and a public all; which, though small, being proportioned to the size of the twen, displays much taste in architecture.

Neufchatel was originally governed by its own Counts, the de-rendants of Amo, who lived at the beginning of the eleventh cenury. After the extinction of this family and its successors, the last of hich was Mary of Orleans, duchess of Nemours, who died in 1707, veral princes laid claim to the sovereignty, and agreed that their etentions should be decided by the states of Neufchatel. These acdingly affembled, and having refolved on certain preliminary conons of government for the maintenance of all their former privim, rights, and immunities, the observation of which was sworn to be different pretenders before the determination of the states; they led in favour of the king of Prussia, as heir to the House of lons, the family of some of their former Counts; and to him allegiance, after having administered the proper oaths. He is cented by a governor, who under his direction disposes of the nd military employments, the principal of which are those of the unsellors: of the chancellor: of the attorney and solicitor genethe chief commissary: of the castellans: of the mayors and at of the court of justice: neither of which can, according to Litution, be offered to any but a burgher or subject, originally Indeed the only public charge, that can be given to ner, is that of governor.

conflitution is composed of three estates, represented by embers, four nobles, sour high officers called castellans, and sellors of the town. In them and the governor (whose conflary to make valid every law and resolution) the supreme des. The most important conditions proposed to and acthe House of Brandenburg before its succession were, that d authority of the state can exist no where but in the state, y that the prince in his absence can only speak to the people ernor and state council: that no subject can be judged an in the principality, and by the constitutional judges: rests of the people are separate from those of the prince's unjons: or, in other words, that Neuschatel should not

K 2

Watkins's Travels through Swifferland, Italy, Se.

pto any of the king of Prussia's wars: and finally, that the inits might engage in any foreign fervice. Thus this little flate confidered as independent of the Prussian territories, and the ally bwifs cantons, is not exposed to the incursions of an enemy, when rince is at war with any power on the confines of Swifferland. s the political fituation of this principality is fo very fingular, in great measure free, though subject to a prince, whose ity in all his other dominions is absolute, I shall beg leave to a little longer on the subject; and here let me observe, that er expect nor merit your praise for what I have written to you government of the cantons and their allies, as 1, like all modern lees, have done little more than translate from the histories of untry. Do not suppose that in a few weeks any person, howndustrious, has time, or even inclination, in such a charming f the world as this is, to ask many questions on government. it would in every respect be ill judged. In the first place, as much unnecessary trouble by the inquiry; and again, in pronot receiving fufficient information. What foreigner would of consulting an English gentleman on the History and Constiof Great Britain, when there are fo many excellent books on bject? But to proceed: - The inhabitants of Neufchatel cannot ed for any crime without having previous intimation of their all punishments and fines are determined by law: and in all al matters the prince has the power of pardoning the culprit. limilar are those to some of the most essential privileges of our

Their imports are confiderable, though a frugal people, they being in want of corn, iron, and falt; the latter article they draw from France, and according to the treaties of alliance subfishing between the two countries, they receive annually a certain quantity at a much more reasonable price than it is ever fold by the French government so their own subjects. Nevertheless, even in Swifferland it is a dear article, being retailed by the officers of state, who monopolize, and draw a principal part of the public revenues from its fale. The total receipt of Berne amounts to about 75,000 l. and of Zurich to a little more than one half. Exclusive of this tax on falt, the revenue is made up by customs and duties on merchandize, the profits of demesne lands, and the tithes of the general produce of the country (the clergy being paid by government) to which might be added the money that the different cantons receive from foreign powers for the hire of their troops. This is a custom that has given rise to a difference of opinion among the Swifs, relative to its advantage or ill consequence. They, who oppose it, maintain that the officers and soldiers of these regiments, sequire the vices of the different countries in which they ferve, and on their return to Swifferland, by spreading them, corrupt the purer morals of its inhabitants. In answer to this it is afferted, that as the revenues of the cantons are inadequate to the expendes of government and the support of a sufficient army for the national defence, it is necessary to pursue this system laid down by their ancestors, as it gives them all the advantages of a regular army, without the expence of its maintenance, it being stipulated in their treaties that in case of attack from a foreign enemy, these troops, which amount to 30,000, should be at liberty to return home and act in concert with their countrymen. Both of these arguments are plausible; but the question is, if they be admitted as fact, whether the morality of a nation should be sacrificed to its policy; but it may be afferted again, that true policy is inseparable from good morals, and still further, the Swifs cannot be apprehensive of the encroachments of any foreign flate, as long as they perceive that the general aim of Europe is to preserve an equilibrium of power: this balance is their best and indeed their only safeguard; for though no soldier, I think I might affert that Swifferland with all its force, could never maintain a defensive war against either France or the Emperor. The Swiss and their allies are supposed to amount to more than two millions of souls. Their manner of living is much more simple than that of their neighbours, as they are more restricted by their respective governments; fumptuary laws being in full force among them, and no amusement, fach as games of hazard, plays, operas, or even dancing, except at appointed times, being permitted. As every citizen is a soldier (the clergy excepted) they on Sundays after divine service go through the military exercise; they are careful of the education of their youth, as is evident from their public seminaries or universities; the principal of which are at Basil and Berne.—In giving you a sketch of the na-tional character, I shall confine myself to the popular governments, as I think the people there retain the temper and manner of the ancient Swifs more than the other cantons. Of them I think very favourably, provided I except those of the lower class, who have feen other countries,

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s, or have any communication with travellers; as such are in this, but I believe in every country of the world, deceitmercenary; with regard to the general inhabitants of these they feem to be frugal without meanness; brave without and hospitable without oftentation: to strangers they are us and polite, without being either defigning or troublesome. alue but little those distinctions of rank, birth, and fortune, n other countries of Europe, and indeed in the other cantons of and, are so obsequiously cultivated, as they measure the dig-the situation by the merit of the individual. Every man here he advantages of his own free government; and as he also knows to be a component part of it, is from interest as well as prinreal patriot. Such is their attachment to their country, that, wifs regiments in foreign fervice, many of the foldiers after a fence pine and ficken for their return. Should that liberty be them (which never is from experience of the ill confequence) ath is inevitable; as neither promotion nor emolument can difhe melancholy that preys upon them. Home is the only cure ingular malady, which is called the Savifs fickness *, and that . In domestic life their private virtues flow from their public r; to their parents they are grateful and obedient: to their affectionate and attentive; inflexible in friendship; mild as s, and benevolent as men.

e late occurrences have directed the public attention to and Piedmont;—our readers will find those countries characterized in the following passage: and to prevent the earth from giving way, break the declivity of the mountains by building walls on the fide for its support, which frequently assume the appearance of ancient fortification, and are a very pleasing deception to travellers. The Savoyards carry their better sort of cheese into Piedmont, as the flavour is much esteemed there; but they gain more by their skins of bears, chamois, and bouquetins (a species of the wild goat) or by the sale of growse and pheasants,

which they carry in great numbers to Turin.

Piedmont is part of the plains of Lombardy, which extending from the north-west boundaries of Italy to the Lagune of Venice, constitute one of the most fertile and valuable parts of Europe. abounds in fruits and grain of almost every kind in our quarter of the world, and its pastures are as rich as those of Holland. Novara is celebrated for its fine rice, millefiori for his majesty's tobacco plantations, whilst the vineyards, in every part of Piedmont, produce a fweet red wine of an excellent quality. But what the owners of land most encourage is the feeding of cattle, and culture of the mulberry tree for filk worms; of the former they fend annually to foreign markets from ninety to a hundred thousand head, besides great numbers of hogs and mules. The last of these animals are very fine in this country, as I have before observed; but the inhabitants have other beafts, of rather monsters, which they find very serviceable, though vicious and obstinate. These are produced by a cow and an ass, or mare and bull, and called Jumarres or Gimerri *; I cannot fay that I have ever feen any of them, but I am told they are very common. The filk worm thrives so well, that many peasants make above + 100lbs. of filk annually; and it is not only abundant, but universally known to be stronger and finer than any in Italy. land-owners divide the profit with their tenants. The duchy of Savoy and principality of Piedmont are, I find, more populous than I thought they were; by the last returns, the number is found to amount to 2,695,727 fouls, of which Turin contains about 77,000.

As Mr. W. advances into Italy and Greece, the fight of every vestige of whatever was famed in ancient story gives his imagination a classical range, and brings the chief heroes of other times into present view. His descriptions are animated, and his illustrations are in point:—but, eager as he always was after objects of curiosity, how were we surprized at his inattention in the following instance! During his excursion to Calabria and Sicily, and while on the former coast, he informs his readers, that

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[•] These equivocal animals (if we may so term them) are so generally mentioned by travellers in this part of Europe, that we have no doubt of their existence; nor of their being sound hardy and serviceable, as labourers. Rev.

^{&#}x27;† Each pound is valued in Piedmont at 18 shillings. The little village of La Tour, in the valley of Lucerne, makes above 50,000 lb. annually, and the exports every year to the single city of Lyons amount to more than 160,000l.'

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n the summit of one of the neighbouring hills that commands ensive sweep of prospect over the Mediterranean, the Adriatic, e two Calabrias, stands an hermitage, whose lonely tenant (as oaks report) is an Englishman. He has resided there nine and subsisted on the alms of the country people, who are exy partial to him from the happy supposition that he is a faint. Vicenzo, the guardian of our little convent, tells me that he ten met him, and that once in a deep wood below the hermitage and him weeping over a miniature, which, on being surprized, hastly into his bosom, and retired. He supposes him to be forty years of age, and says his appearance is very noble and ting. We have been, as you may imagine, very desirous of with this melancholy man, but our continual expectation of a able wind has prevented it.'

bing ought to have prevented it. How could be and his anions refrain from fearching out an unhappy countryman ingular and remote a feclusion, when, possibly, the fight m might have soothed a wounded heart, and eventually occasioned more pleasing recollections to themselves,

ny other occurrence in the whole tour!

might well be imagined that Herculaneum and Pompeii not escape our author's notice; in describing the king's

at Portici, he fays,

he most interesting and most valuable room, however, is the , from the numerous manuscript rolls which it contains. What is here for conjecture! what room for hope! Among this in-

We wish that his Sicilian Majesty could be induced (and it may be worth a trial,) to consign his literary charcoal to his British Majesty, that Friar Raggio, if living, might resume his interesting labours.

Mr. W. is a thorough antiquary; of which the following passage, in his account of the antiquities of old and the curiosities of modern Rome, will be sufficient evidence. Of the relics of antiquity he observes, with true classical seeling,

What subjects are these for reflection! how fully do they engage the attention, and warm the imagination of the beholder! To me their charms are so irresistible, that I visit them daily, and when there, can hardly persuade myself to leage them. How frequently have I discovered the richest ornaments of architecture in the ragged walls of a vineyard! and broken columns, which once perhaps supported the theatre of Scaurus, used as props to the humble roof of a cottage! I saw them, and lamented their change. But the modern palaces absolutely excite my indignation, as I know their materials to be the spoils of the noblest ruins in Rome. You read that this city has been often sacked and pillaged by the Gotles, &c. but, believe me, those Goths who have done it the greatest injury, were its popes and cardinals. Few of the many pontiffs, who have refided here, are innocent of this charge. Alexander the VIth, a superstitious Spaniard, carried this outrage to far, as to destroy the pyramid of Scipio, for its stones to pave the streets. Would that his life for this offence had depended on a jury of antiquarians!'

Really our indignation is not raised high enough to join in fo rash a wish. What! subject him to an unjust tribunal of enraged accusers, for surrendering up an useless object of profane veneration, to subserve purposes of public utility? Had Scipio, indeed, been one of the primitive Christian saints, this superstition might have changed fides:—but seriously, if the city wanted pavement, and a pile of proper stone, of magnitude sufficient to become an object of attention, stood in the neighbourhood, what should with hold the citizens from considering it as a magazine of materials by good luck ready at their doors? The antiquary might take all its dimensions, make his drawings, record his descriptions, and then the stone, as public property, is due to any useful public purpose that called for it. builders of Old Sarum, or of some of the neighbouring castles or churches, best knew what became of the missing parts of the present impersect Stonehenge; and should the remainder be wanted, the pleas of antiquaries would be insufficient objections to fo convenient a provision.

Mr. W. presents us with the following general view of Sicily:

I shall close this tour of Sicily with some general remarks upon the country, which I have reserved for this letter. Its form is triangular,

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the three angles being the promontories of Pelorum, Pachynd Lilybæum, or as they are now called, the Faro, Capo Pafnd Capo Boeo. Its circuit is between five and fix hundred
When it was conquered by the Saracens, they divided it in
arts or valleys; namely, the Val di Demona, Val di Noto, and
Mazzara. From the earliest periods of antiquity, that is, as
k as we have any written memorial of things, it was remarkits fertility, and thence called by Homer the Island Tagonacolor

time of its greatest prosperity was from the siege of Syracuse Athenians to the Carthaginian conquests. Then, and long supplied with grain in years of scarcity all the countries upon diterranean, except Egypt and the coasts of Asia, and Rome rthage continually. Even now, under all the impediments of ion and bad government, its productions are, in quantity and the best in Europe. Of the vegetable are grain, wines, oil, obacco, mulberry trees for the silkworm, cotton, medicinal nd sugar canes. The last of these flourish near Avola and

They are of an inferior quality to those of the West Indies, r sugar is sweeter than any other. The animal production is to that of Italy, but the horned cattle are a smaller breed. The bound with sish, particularly with tunney and anchovies; the swhich forms a very lucrative branch of commerce. There are silver, copper, and lead, but none are worked. Near Palma s of the best sulphur: at the mouth of the river Giaretta is yellow amber, preserable to that of the Baltic; and in every the island quarries of marbles, that have surnished materials are noble edifices of Sicily. The most heautiful are in the

brute animals, or I should rather say the abuse of it, is productive of the greatest nuisance in Constantinople which swarms with dogs. These animals are not the property of individuals but nourished by all, and their litters are never destroyed. I remember to have seen a man at Basil in Swisserland whose only occupation was to feed the cats of the town, a considerable income being less by a charitable old lady for that purpose. Last week as I stood on a wharf of Tophannah, a Turk came up to an Italian sailor who had a Canary bird in a cage for sale, and having considered it attentively, enquired the price. The Italian saw that he intended an act of charity and in consequence, all Italiana, made a most exorbitant demand. The Mussulman was indignant and less it, but he had not proceeded far ere he stopped and reslected; turned suddenly about, gave the sailor the money and the bird its

liberty.

· I was not altogether convinced of the utter barbarism of this people until I found they had no music among them. That sweet science, which bears such irrefistible dominion over the passions of most men, is to them unknown. They abhor Italian harmony, and have no other instruments than a pipe and great drum, the sounds of which are most discordant and noisy. Painting and statuary are forbidden by their law, and you will suppose how little poetry, or indeed any other literary composition is cultivated among a nation in which learning is thought of so little consequence that the Capoudan-Pasha can neither read nor write. When I first beheld the Turks sitting at their doors inattentive to every thing but their coffee and pipe, I confidered them an indolent people; but foon found that in employment no men could be more active. They are a nation of good horsemen, but not so good as the Arabians, who teach them the art of riding. In their mock combats between two on horseback called Jerid, the greatest address is displayed in wheeling on full gallop, retreating, pursuing, and darting their sticks at each other. I really think that in a skirmish of eavalry they would vanquish any troops in the world. Their religion, which commands them to abstain from wine, and to wash themlelves before prayers, has made them temperate and clean. The predestinarian faith it inculcates inspires them with contempt of danger, infomuch that the true Mussulman is at all times ready to rush into battle, or to carry in his arms one infected with the plague, believing that an hour is appointed, before which his existence cannot terminate. Every Turk has an idea that fate may make him Vizier, and indeed when you recollect that there are no hereditary honours but in the Sultan line, and that ministers are often taken from the lowest classes, the probability of the event makes the supposition not unreasonable. They have little or no fociety but their women. Every man may have as many wives and mistresses as he can maintain. I was much furprised at the appearance of their females who seem stuffed in bags of green cloth. To conceal their faces they wear two white handkerchiefs, one tied round their heads from the chin to the eyes, and another to cover their foreheads &c. When they pass a Frank they often pinch and call him Jawr. Of this I was previously advertised, and cautioned not to look at them. The other day however, having followed a poor creature in the plague to the doors of the hospital, I walked

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into one of the burying grounds (of which there are fo many, e environs of the city are covered with tomb stones). As I here enjoying the incomparable prospect, two Turkish women ip to look at me, and having gazed some time, took off and exmy hat. One of them was young, and by her eyes feemed ul. They talked to me, but I made figns that their language intelligible, and fearful of my fituation from the jealoufy of the , bowed and hastlily retired. You will readily believe that the of a nation, so unenlightened, so bigotted, and so prejudiced as urks, are loaded with those bad qualities which debase human , particularly pride, contempt of foreigners, oppression, and ; the last of these surprised me more than any other, because I the people opulent, and possessed of Greek slaves to do all their work; but so it is, that every one of them from the highest to west may be corrupted by money. I lament these evils the because they are the effects of religion and ignorance. Were ble to annihilate their faith, and introduce a spirit of enquiry te love of learning among them, they would become as great swerful in these enlightened times, as they were in the afteenth They would new model their government, mix in the pof Europe, fend ambassadors to foreign courts, and give discipline ir fleets and armies, inflead of being as they are the flaves of a and his ministers, ignorant of all transactions but their own, ed and betrayed by thrangers, and vanquished by their enemies. im they in vain oppose numbers without order, and valour withudence."

this character of the Ottomans, may properly be added

with them on the same points, but may be affished with new conceptions. We have to add that the printer has not done his author proper justice, as the work is typographically incorrect; for which Mr. W. apologizes by declaring that his necessary residence, at a considerable distance from London, obliged him to trust to the correction of an ignorant amanuens:—but ought such a person to have been thus entrusted? These apologies are too frequently made, but should very rarely, if ever, be allowed.

ART. II. Travels in India, during the Years 1780, 1781, 1782, 1783. By William Hodges, R. A. 4to. pp. 156. 14 Plates. 11. 1s. Boards. J. Edwards. 1793.

but can also use his pencil with success, we reap the full benefit of his observations; his descriptions and his representations reciprocally heighten their effects; and he not only communicates his ideas of places and manners, but he faithfully exhibits their appearances to the eye. Such is the ingenious artist whose travels are now before us, and whose professional abilities have been frequently admired by the discerning public*. He now appears with great advantage as a writer; especially as he offers this work to the public with that modesty, which, though it may not always accompany acknowleged merit, ever becomes an individual in a public address, and disposes a reader to give it a cordial reception, and a ready allowance.

These travels have a close connection with Mr. Hodges's former elegant work, intitled, Select Views in India, mentioned in the note below; they being members of one body. Mr. H. remarks in his preface—

It is only matter of surprise, that, of a country so nearly allied to us, so little should be known. The public is, indeed, greatly indebted to the learned labours of gentlemen, who have resided there, for the information which they have afforded concerning the laws and the religion of the Hindoo tribes; as well as for correct and well digested details of the transactions of the Mogul government. But of the face of the country, of its arts, and natural productions, little has yet been said. Gentlemen who have resided long in India lose the idea of the farst impression which that very curious country makes upon an entire

Mr. Hodges was first publicly distinguished as an artist, by the many excellent drawings which he made in his voyage round the world, with Captain Cook, in the years 1772—1775; see Monthly Review, vol. 57; and, fince, by his Victus taken in India, which he published in two volumes imperial folio: of which we gave some account in the eightieth volume of our Review, p. 271.

Hodges's Travels in India.

er: the novelty is foon effaced, and the mind, by a common and all operation, foon directs its views to more abstract speculation; ing assumes the place of observation, and the traveller is lost in allosopher.'

eping this idea in view, Mr. H. gives a lively representaof the novelties which must strike an English mind on the

er's first arrival on the coast of India:

ome time before the ship arrives at her anchoring ground, she is by the boats of the country silled with people of business, who in crowds on board. This is the moment in which an European the great distinction between Asia and his own country. The g of she linen, and the general hum of unusual conversation, t to his mind for a moment the idea of an assembly of females. he ascends upon the deck, he is struck with the long mussing and black saces † adorned with very large gold ear-rings hite turbans. The first salutation he receives from these strans by bending their bodies very low, touching the deck with the of the hand and the forehead, three times.

he natives first seen in India by an European voyager, are Hinthe original inhabitants of the peninsula. In this part of India
re delicately framed, their hands § in particular are more like
of tender semales; and do not appear to be, what is considered a
proportion to the rest of the person, which is usually above
iddle size. Correspondent to this delicacy of appearance are
nanners, mild, tranquil, and sedulously attentive: in this last rehey are indeed remarkable, as they never interrupt any person

The appearance of the country on the entrance of the Ganges, or Houghly river, (this being only a branch of the great Ganges,) is rather unpromising; a few bushes at the water's edge, forming a dark line, just marking the distinction between sky and water, are the only objects to be seen. As the ship approaches Calcutta, the river narrows; that which is called the Garden Reach, presents a view of handsome buildings on a flat furrounded by gardens: these are villas belonging to the opulent inhabitants of Calcutta. The vessel has no fooner gained one other reach of the river, than the whole city of Calcutta bursts upon the eye. This capital of the British dominions in the East is marked by a considerable sortress on the south side of the river, which is allowed to be, in strength and correctness of design, superior to any in India. On the fore-ground of the picture is the water gate of the fort, which reflects great honour on the talents of the engineer the ingenious Colonel Polier. The glacis and esplanade are seen in perspective, bounded by a range of beautiful and regular buildings; and a considerable reach of the river, with vessels of various classes and fizes, from the largest Indiaman to the smallest boat of the country, closes the scene. A plate representing this view, from a picture taken on the spot, and admirably engraved by Mr. Byrne, an artist whose reputation is not be raised by any culogium in this place, is annexed.'

We will now just look into the city; where, Mr. H. remarks,

The mixture of European and Asiatic manners, which may be obferved in Calcutta, is curious: coaches, phætons, single horse chaises, with the palankeens and hackeries of the natives, the passing ceremonies of the Hindoos, the different appearances of the sakirs, form a sight perhaps more novel and extraordinary than any city in the world can present to a stranger. Some views in the city of Calcutta, published by Mr. Daniel, are highly to be commended for their accuracy.

As we cannot propose to wander far into this remote country, we shall just cite Mr. H.'s general view of the present state of Bengal:

be formed of the happiness or misery of a people. Where there is neatness in the cultivation of the land, and that land tilled to the utmost of its boundaries, it may reasonably be supposed that the government is the protector and not the oppressor of the people. Throughout the kingdom of Bengal, it appears highly sourishing in tillage of every kind, and abounding in cattle. The villages are neat and clean, and filled with swarms of people.' p. 17.

As Mr. H.'s experience is but a corroboration of many other unexceptionable testimonies to the same pleasing effect, we must rank among the whimsical occurrences of the present age, the long, solemn, and laboured, endeavours to convict a man of ruining this very country! Indeed the writer finds several occasions to remark the good conduct and popularity of Mr. Hastings, throughout his journies. Among the rest, he went in the governor's retinue in his progress to Benares, at the time when the unhappy

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ection took place there, which has fince proved the subject much fruitless disquisition; and though Mr. Hodges, with prudence, declines entering into political inquiries, he dethat 'it is merely an act of common justice to state, that, my whole residence in India, I never so much as heard ilt and persidy of Chevt Sing once called in question." nares is particularly distinguished as the seat of Bramin ng; and, in examining one of the temples there, Mr. H. urprifed to observe most of the ornamental parts of the an architecture in a building erected in the plains of Hin-! He gives an engraving of one of the rich columns, dds an ingenious effay on the different flyles of architecin which he traces the characteristics of each, back to the live favage dwellings of the first inventors; who, in all improvements, still adhered to their first models, the cathe rock, and the hut; objects continually brought to by the vault, the cupola, the spire, the column, the flat g, and the pediment.

N.W. from Calcutta; and he visited, in the way, Coszar, Moorshedabad, Bauglepoor, Mongheir, Patna, Be-Bidjegur, Allahabad, Cawnpoor, Lucknow, Fyzabad, Etaya, Fyrozabad, Etamadpoor, and the strong fortress waltor. Beside several excellent engravings, the author



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therefore, have left the princes of India at more liberty to indulge themselves in this elegant art.

In sculpture there are no instances of excellence among the Moors, except in the Taje Mahad at Agra, upon which there are flowers carved with considerable ability.

The Hindoos appear to me to rife superior to the Mahommedans in the ornamental parts of architecture. Some of the sculptures in their buildings are very highly to be commended for the beauty of the execution; they may, indeed, be said to be very finely drawn, and cut with a peculiar sharpness. The instance which is produced in this work of a column from the temple of Vis Visha, at Benares, will prove it, although cut in freestone. A similar instance cut in black basalt, in the collection of Charles Townley, Esq. (on which are ornaments similar to those which is referred to above,) is a striking proof of their power in this art. This column was brought from Gour, an ancient city, (now totally demolished,) situated on the eastern shore of the Ganges, nearly opposite to Rajemahel. I have seen many instances of cast metal statues, relative to Hindoo mythology, that prove their perfect knowledge in the art of casting. These works, as they apply to the religion of Bramah, are both curious and valuable; but, as they are purely mythological, the artists have only considered the symbolical character, without the proper attention, and perhaps without a power, of giving a perfect beautiful form, such as we see in the Grecian statues.

The paintings of the Hindoos, as they are, like their sculpture, chiefly applied to represent the objects of their religious worship, are certainly not so perfect as the Moorish pictures, which are all portraits. A constant study of simple nature, it is well known, will produce a resemblance which is sometimes assonishing, and which the painter of ideal objects never can arrive at.'

This advantage Mr. H. has enjoyed to an extent beyond most, if not all, other gentlemen of the pencil. It is usual for painters to study the works of the best masters of the Italian school, as the last stage of their education: but is not this studying nature at second hand, under the peculiarities of manner? After a student is well grounded in the principles of design, and in the management of colours, would he not be more original in studying nature herself, in the line best suited to his genius, than in imitating copies, however excellent?

Painters are moreover too ready to adopt the licentious example of poets, in making truth at all times yield to grace and embellishment: but this is the indulgence of a vicious imagination, tending to the perversion of the art. The concluding sentence of the work before us is decisive on the subject, as being the judgment of a distinguished professor:

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[•] A beautiful monument erected by the Emperor Shan Jehan to the memory of his favourite wife, by whose name the building is distinguished. Rev. >

Tytler's Translation of the Works of Callimachus.

tures are collected from their value as specimens of human exand genius exercised in a fine art; and justly are they so: but t help thinking that they would rise still higher in estimation, ey connected with the history of the various countries, and did tobsully represent the manners of mankind.'

e, however, is room for fome doubt, if we may borrow ords of the poet, and, applying them to the prefent sub-

y,
Ten censure wrong, for one who paints amis.'

111. The Works of Callimachus, translated into English e. The Hymns and Epigrams from the Greek; with the a Berenices from the Latin of Catullus. With the original t, and Notes carefully selected from former Commentators, additional Observations, by H. W. Tytler, M. D. 4to. 268. 155. boards. Dilly. 1793.

LLIMACHUS was one of the brightest ornaments of an age that was illustrious in arts and arms; and of which w monuments that remain have increased in value, in tion as they have diminished in quantity. The destructive of time has proved peculiarly satal to the glory of the nies; and the friends of literature and the arts cannot h cherish those scanty remains, which still perpetuate emoty of princes, in whom Merit of every kind found

dress, nor that dignity and simplicity abated which belongs to the ages of antiquity, when the poet was not distracted by the multitude

of figures connected with artificial refinements.

with a view to prepare himself for the translation of Callimachus, Dr. Tytler compared every line of the Iliad with Mr. Pope's translation, whereby he put himself in a congenial train for undertaking to do justice to Callimachus, and meditating a translation of Lucretius; he meant to have done the same by the Georgics of Virgil and Mr. Dryden.

Whatever may be said upon these subjects, it is evident to every person of learning and taste, that the style of ancient, is greatly superior to that of modern, poetry; and that those who can enable the unlearned to taste of the beauties of the Greek and Roman poets of eminence in modern languages, are entitled to no vulgar praise.

"With respect to Callimachus himself, every man of learning knows, that he was one of the keepers of the Alexandrian library, and a savourite of Ptolemy Philadelphus King of Egypt, whose praises he celebrates in a beautiful hymn which almost infinitely degrades our modern "Joys to great Cæsar;" not on account of its superior veracity, but the beauty and simplicity of its construction, devoid of that cumbersome and nauseous machinery of extravagant encomium; which a modern man of taste cannot help wishing to fall down and bury the laureates and the laurelled in obscurity."

To the foregoing observations, we shall only add a few specimens from the work, in order to illustrate the substantial justice of his lordship's criticism. The first excerpt shall be taken from the Hymn to Diana, containing the visit of the Goddess and her Nymphs to the cave of the Cyclops:

Thence to Meligunis' isle in haste (Now Lipara) the sylvan Goddess pass'd, Her nymphs attending, and with wondering eyes Saw the brown Cyclops of enormous size, Deep in their darksome dwelling under ground, On Vulcan's mighty anvil turning round A mass of metal hissing from the stame: The sea god urges, and for him they frame A wond'rous vase, the liquor to contain That fills his coursers on the stormy main.

With horror chill'd, the tim'rous virgins eye, Stupendous giants rear their heads on high, Like cloud-capt Offa rifing o'er the field; One eye, that blaz'd like some refulgent shield,

Αυθιό. Κυκλωπας μετειιάθιο τος μεν έτετμε Νεσω έτι Λιπαςη (Λιπαςη 1εοι, αλλα τοτ έσκεν Ουνομα οι Μελιγουνις) έτι ακμοσιο Ηξαισείο Εσαυτας περι μυθροιο επειγετο γας μεγα έχνοι. Ιπαινικ τι τυκοιτο Ποσειθαμή ποτιστικο Αλευταξιο διθείσαν όπως έδι αίνα σελωρα, Πιροσιο Ουσιειστο Ιοικοταί (πασειδιο ποφερε

Tytler's Translation of the Works of Callimachus.

rom each stern forchead glar'd pernicious fire. ghaft they gaze, when now the monsters dire ith stubborn strokes shake the resounding shore, nd the huge bellows thro' the caverns roar. ut when from hercer flames the metal glows, nd the fix'd anvil rings with heavier blows, Then pond'rous hammers break the tortur'd mafs, Iternate thund'ring on the burning brafs, he nymphs no more endure the dreadful fight, heir ears grow deaf, their dim eyes lofe the light; deeper groan through lab'ring Ætna runs, ppals the hearts of old Sicania's fons, edoubles from Hesperia's coast around, nd diftant Cyrnus thunders back the found. o wonder that Diana's tender maids would fink with terror in thefe gloomy shades; or when the daughters of th' immortal gods ith infant clamours fill the bleft abodes, rges or Steropes the mother calls I'wo Cyclops grim) from their infernal halls o feize the froward child; no Cyclops come, at, loudly threatn'ing, from some inner room blequious Hermes Inift before her flands, ith blacken'd face, and with extended hands: he frighted infant, thus compos'd to reft, orgets its cries, and finks upon her breaft."

nia pipocyhera, auner iau tetjafoni,

· To Ceres .

The basket swift-descending from the skies, + Thus, thus, ye matrons, let your voices rise: "Hail! Ceres, hail! by thee, from fertile ground Swift springs the corn, and plenty flows around." Ye crouds, yet uninstructed, stand aloof, Nor view the pageant from the lofty roof, But on the ground below; nor matrons fair, Nor youth, nor virgins, with dishevell'd hair, Dare here approach: nor let the moisture flow From fasting mouths to stain the mystic show. But radiant Hesper, from the starry skies, Beholds the facred basket as it flies: Bright Hesper t only could persuade the pow'r To quench her thirst, in that unhappy hour,

When

+ The procession of the basket, a proper emblem of Ceres, was on the fourth day of the festival. This holy basket, or x222 ther, was carried on a consecrated vehicle, crouds of people shouting as it went

^{· •} Among the religious folemnities transported from Greece to Alexandria, Ptolemy could not fail to introduce the famous Eleufinian festival, celebrated with such pomp at Athens, in honour of Ceres; the great benefactress of that city; and through it, as Isocrates relates, of the other republics of Greece, and of all the rest of mankind. When Ceres wandered over Greece in quest of her daughter Proserpine, she received in Attica the most hospitable treatment, and those particular good offices which it is lawful to make known only to The goddels was not ungrateful for those favours, but, in return, conferred on our ancestors, the two most valuable prefents which mankind can receive or even Heaven can bestow :- the art of agriculture, which delivered us from the fierce and precarious manner of life common to us with wild animals; and the knowledge of those facred mysteries which fortify the initiated against the terrors of death, and inspire them with the pleasing hopes of an happy immortality. Our ancestors discovered as much benevolence in diffusing those advantages as picty in obtaining them-Their humanity communicated what their virtue had acquired. The mysteries were annually unveiled to all defirous and worthy of receiving them; and the practice, the means, and advantages of agriculture were speedily extended over all Greece." Ifocrates, in panegyric Athen, Gillies' translation. Such is the Athenian legend: and if Ceres, as is gene rally supposed, denote the fertilizing power of nature, her worship must have been one of the most ancient. For Aristotle in his Ethicks (ad Nicomach. VIII. 9.) tells us that the ancient sacrifices and religious solemnities appear to have taken place after the gathering in of the grain, and confifted in a fort of first fruit-offerings to the gods; men having most leisure at that season.'

along Xule Ayartis, Hail Ceres.'

This passage has given rise to innumerable conjectures; of L 3

Tytler's Translation of the Works of Callimachus.

en full of grief, the roam'd from place to place, ravish'd daughter's latent steps to trace. w could thy ten or feet, Ogoddeis, bear e painful journey to the wettern tohere? w couldit thou tread black Æthiop's burning climes : that four full, in these distressful times, tre, on the tree, the golden apple beams, ceat, nor drink, nor bathe in cooling freams? Thrice Achelous flood her fleps divide, d ev'ry uream that rolls a cealclefs tide. ree times the prets'd the center of that ifle ., ere Enna's flow'ry fields with beauty fmile. rec times, by dark Challichorus, the fate, d call'd the yawning gulph to mourn her fate: ere, faint with hunger, laid her weary'd limbs, rear, nor drank, nor bath'd in civling fireams. But ceafe, my muse, in these unhallow'd strains, fing of Ceres' woes, and Ceres' pains +;

he most probable is, that this is only a poetical mode of fayit Ceres was so eager to discover her daughter, that she othing all day, nor quenched her thirst till the rising of the star.' icily. Enna was called the umbilicus Sicilia.' Far nobler to refound her facred laws *, That blefs'd mankind, and gain'd their loud applause.

Far nobler to refound her facred laws] fo Virgil. Mactant lectas de more bidentes

Legiferae Cereri. Laws are most naturally ascribed to Ceres, the inventress of agriculture, fince agriculture occasioned the division or appropriation of lands, and the appropriation of land produced the necessity of laws. The festival of Ceres called & opening denotes this characteristic of the goddess, meaning the sestival in honour of the establishment of laws. Spanheim observes that the feast of penticost, or of wheat harvest, has exactly the same appellation in Hebrew, in memory of the law-giver from mount Sinai; and that laws engraven on tables of brass were hung up in the temples of Ceres in Greece; the institution of the Gentile nations thus concurring with the evidence of facred scripture in referring the benefits of legislation to a divine original. He might have added that before these written laws of Ceres, there existed others, not less sacred, the xerosi round, the laws of Saturn, and particularly the biguists dies the laws of Jupiter, so named from Jugar, his minister or messenger, a most important personage in the polity as well as in the religion of antiquity, being nothing less than a personification of distributive justice. In all ages and nations, and under every form of society, $\theta_1\mu_1$, or justice, is equally worthy of veneration, the great bon and center of attraction, or, as it were, the key stone of the arch that supports the fabrick of social life, and distinguishes a state of civilization, that is, properly, a state of subjection to just government, from a state of savageness, that is a state of subjection to rude violence and brutal force. That these Ospure, Sing formed during the heroic ages the nature, the principle, the very essence of government, is fully proved in the history of ancient Greece, vol. I. c. 2. It appears that kings were nothing more than mere instruments in the hands of Jupiter, and that under the name of royalty, the government was really theocratic. While they dispensed faithfully the himse, they were to be respected and obeyed, but when they perverted or infringed these sacred laws, they at the same moment disgraced and deposed themselves; and the sceptre, the external badge of their authority, dropped from their hands. See the Iliad and Odyssey passim—particularly Odyss. ii. 68-69. Il. IX. 98, 99. 11. XII. 310, and seq. Kings were called Jepussoπαλοι, the ministers or servants of the β-μισις, which they were to defend, and as Aristotle tells us in his Politicks, the form of the oath consisted in stretching forth the sceptre. Aristot Polit. L. iii. c. XIV. See also Dyonys. Halicarn. Ant. Rom. L. ii. and L. v. p. 337. ex Edit. Sylburgii. The only personages in those days who difregarded the bipuras were the Cyclopes: they indeed were, each in his own family, arbitrary princes, and made their will law-

דסוסוי שד באיספבו בשאחףספסו, שדב לבנורובנ."

Tytler's Translation of the Works of Callimachus,

nobler to declare how first she bound e sacred sheathes, and cut the corn around, w first the grain beneath the steer she laid, d taught Triptolemus the rural trade.'

Tytler, we think, has been very happy in transfuling glish the simplicity of the Greek epigram. We quote pwing examples:

Epigram VII.
A pious youth approaching where
His stepdame's body lay,
Officious crown'd her statue there
With slow'rets fresh and gay.

Nor thought his father's wife, when dead, Her malice could retain; The statue thunder'd on his head And fix'd him to the plain.

Ye foster-sons avoid his doom Nor hang a slow'ry wreath Around an envious stepdame's tomb, Lest ye too sink in death.'

Στηλης μιτζειης, μιπζαι λιθος, έσεΦε πυζος,
 Ως βιις, ηλλαχθαι κή τροπος οδομειος.
 Η δι ταζο κλιθισα κατεκταις απόδα αισυσα.
 Φιυγετε μετζευις κή ταφος εί αιζογοιοι.

Epig. X.

ART. IV. A fort History of the Perfection of Constians, by Jewn, Heathens, and Christians. To which are added, an Account of the present State of Religion, in the United States of America, and some Observations on Civil Establishments of Religion. By A. Robinson. 8vo. pp. 150. 2s. Johnson.

Brief sketch is here drawn of the history of persecution, A from the commencement of christianity to the present The author shews, on the unquestionable authority of fact, that, throughout this long period, perfecution has never ceased, first on the part of the heathens against christians, and, after the union of the civil power with the authority of the church, among christians themselves. The facts are judiciously selected, and are represented in colours which are well adapted to produce in the mind of the reader the deepest conwiction of the folly of the principle, and of the madness of the practice, which have brought fuch an accumulation of miseries on mankind. The whole is interspersed with important ob-fervations, expressed with great energy. The following ex-Eracl may be sufficient to give an idea of the spirited manner in which this writer treats his subject :- it relates the persecutions in France and England, in the latter part of the last Century:

The duke of Savoy, A. D. 1655, banished the protestants from Piedmont with the greatest cruelty. In their distress they applied to Cromwell (Protector of England) for relief, and he immediately pro-Cured their restoration to their just rights,—the duke trembling at the thunder of his name. The English nation, with great generofity, subscribed for the relief of these worthy protestants, near forty thoufand pounds. The celebrated act of uniformity was passed in the Year 1661, by which, all who did not conform to the liturgy by St. Bartholomew's day following, August 1662, were to be deprived of their benefices. In consequence of this two thousand clergymen were deprived.—Many were obliged to give up their livings, because they would not swear to what they had not seen. About this time, the refpectable people called Quakers, petitioned parliament for a toleranon, instead of which, an act was passed, which, after describing that ody, enacted, "If any fuch person refuse to take an oath when tadered to him, after the 24th of March, or persuade others to do 4, or maintain the unlawfulness of taking an oath, or if they shall semble for worship to the number of five or more, of the age of sheen, they shall forseit for the first offence, sive pounds, for the seand, ten pounds, and for the third, shall abjure the realm, or be mansported to the plantations." -- Three thousand and fixty-eight,

The excellent Dr. Wendeborn laments the decrease of the Cakers in England, and considers it as the decrease of decency, orer, and the most valuable virtues. In this I cordially join with this
truly

Robinson's History of the Persecution of Christians.

fox, had been imprisoned since the restoration of Charles II. statements make the imprisoned still more numerous, many died of, and their places of worship were broken open and violence d to them.

n 1668, the famous quaker William Penn wrote a confutation of othe Athanasian trinity, and the atonement of and had the honour of being, for this work, imprisoned seven is in the tower. In 1670, Penn was tried at the Old Bailey, with Mr. Mead, for preaching to an assembly of Quakers, in church-street, London, after the passing of the conveniese They were indicted for preaching to an unlawful and tomothessembly. The jury brought in their verdict guilty of speaking in church-street; but Mead they acquitted of even this guilt, jury were treated with the most wanton and tyrannical insult, were urged to condemn the prisoners. They manfully resuled threatened into injustice, and after much fasting and insume brought in a sinal verdict—not guilty.*

the reign of Charles II. the following penal perfecuting fautis saffed —1. Act of uniformity,—2. Corporation act,—3. Convents,—4. Oxford act,—5. Tell act.—The seachs compose a complete of persecution, so that had they been all universally enforced, rson but those of the church could have escaped ruin, banishor death. Charles was a prophane libertine, of the most primorals, and treated all religion with contempt, yet because of rescuting measures, he was praised by the high church clergy subsection expert rules; the

All the protestant clergy were first banished; and their people who discovered a wish to follow them, were condemned to the gallies, the women were forced into the nunneries. All who remained in the kingdom, of the protestant faith, were prohibited the exercise of their religious worship, either public or private, on pain of death. The children of protestants were taken from their parents, and given to their catholic relations, or to others, whom the judges chose to charge with their education. A twentieth part of the whole body of the Protestants were soon put to death, and a price set on the heads of the rest, who were hunted like wild beasts of the forest. Thus France, (notwithstanding the prohibition to leave the kingdom,) presently lost fix bundred thousand valuable citizens, who supplied William III. with courageous soldiers, and England, Holland, and Germany with useful manusacturers.

Voltaire says, fifty thousand families, in the first three years, were banished, who carried with them a prodigious quantity of money, and their arts and manusactures enriched the enemies of their cruel country. This persecution, says the same author, rather increased than diminished the sect it was intended to destroy, and France derived not from it even an ideal advantage. The priests celebrated the praise of Lewis, who expected from them the kingdom

of heaven, for fuch an example of holy zeal.

When William III. came to the throne of England, he shewed himself the warm friend of the rights of conscience, and in his reight was passed the toleration act, under the influence and protection of which, sectaries of every kind have for one hundred years, slept secare under their own fig tree. The toleration act, however, did not include in its favour, those who denied the doctrine of the Trinity, tad about fifty years after the reign of William III. a profecution was commenced against Mr. Ellwall, who had written on that subject. He was tried at the affizes at Stafford, before judge Denton, for herefy and blasphemy, and was acquitted, though he pleaded guilty to the indicament. - The judge conformed to the spirit of the times. father than to the spirit of the laws, and gave honourable liberty to a man whose only crime was herefy. This is the last legal prosecution for herely, in England; but laws still against heretics remain unrepealed, though many attempts have lately been made to procure their The bishops strenuously opposed their repeal, on the motion repeal. Earl Stanhope, and it may fairly be supposed they will continue so bodo, till the voice of the nation become irrefistible. Though no level profecution for herefy hath been entered upon fince that of Ellthe spirit of persecution is not yet evaporated, but hath repeasedly discovered itself since, especially in the infamous and dispraceful riots in London, in the year 1780, and those of Birming-

*† L'Histoire Générale, vol. VIII.

^{**} Ruffel's History of Modern Furope.'

¹ These riots afford another proof of the necessity of 'nstrusting the common people in the principles of religious liberty."

Robinson's History of the Persecution of Christians.

he reader will here remark, that the charge of perfecution is rought home, equally to the Papist, the Protestant Episcopalian, the Profession of the will draw this wife and fair conclusion, that wer dogmatical sectiles established by law, that sect will attempt tirpation of all other sects. He will smile when he observes the tant perfected by the papist, and then alleging that to perfect the property of a false, but so he perfected is the character of church, and then sees the protestant perfectite the papist, he papist rejoicing in suffering for the truth. He will smile he hears the Episcopalian defend the perfection of the Presby; and the Presbyterian defend the perfection of the Episcopale will not think perfection the test of a true church, either in who suffer, or in those who instict it, but he will consider it as a proof of one sait,—That he subo suffers is not established, but to institute speciention is of the established church, subatever, to ver that church be.'

the account of the present state of religion in the United of America, an act of the assembly of Virginia, estang universal freedom in religion, is inserted. In the sethe author replies to Mr. Paley's argument for an exclusionablishment of religion, and concludes with enumerating a important advantages, which are to be expected from a religion to be supported by its own evidence and auy, among an enlightened people:

interest to respect each other, by sympathy they thus respect themselves. America shews this to be true, and Dr. Adam Smith has shewn this to be the natural unvarying consequence of small independent sects.

It would aid the conversation of good morals; for small sects naturally watch their members closely, and every man thus religiously connected, finds he has a character to lose. But established churches produce no connection amongst their members, and consequently no obscure person seeds his religious and moral character to be of any importance. This holds especially and universally good, in large towns, and when a man changes the place of his abode. The superior moral character of the dissenters, in every country, may be sairly appealed to, in proof of this sact.

It would shew religion to be, what it really is, something superior to the world, and different from its policy. Whoever embraced religion, would be supposed to do it from conviction, and this would excite enquiry, and lead to the hearty reception of its precepts. The case at present is quite otherwise, both in England and on the continent. A general distrust and neglect prevail, and none are supposed to profess religion from a higher principle than fashion or policy. If establishments long exist, insidelity will be general, it is gaining ground apace, and most rapidly in those countries, where

Let would favour the general liberties of mankind; for priests have always been the instruments of tyranny in the hands of government, and have preached to the people passive obedience and non-resistance, promising to the man who was willing to be a slave, a future sate of felicity, for a present state of wretchedness. Their crast has been supported by princes, and perhaps the history of the American

eftablishments are most wealthy and pompous.

been supported by princes, and perhaps the history of the American revolution is the only one which exhibits the clergy, as friends to the teaple, and to liberty. The reason is obvious, the American church depended more upon the people, than upon government, they had, therefore, a common interest, and a common cause to defend.

It would favour the diffusion of knowledge. The clergy, etablished in their greatest pomp, taught the people that ignorance is the mether of devotion. They prevented the bible from being read, and endeavoured by every possible means to confine knowledge to themselves. This is a true corporation spirit, and what will always be favoured by those, who set up to be the masters of mankind. All knowledge has a natural connection, and thus religious knowledge leads to the cultivation of general science. Religious knowledge either is, or is not of itself, of real value and importance. If it be not, then no clergy can be of any use at all; if it be, then an unestabished clergy are of most value; for it is of the nature of small sects, promote examination, and general enquiry, which issue in the acquifition of religious knowlege. The ignorance of the lowest orders of the people, of religious matters, is so notorious in this kingdom, where two millions a year are paid for their instruction, that none will contend, that the proposed end (if that end be instruction) of an esta-Mishment is answered in them. The preaching mechanics, called methodists, have, in the last fifty years, instructed more of the lower of the people, in the obligations of christianity, and have called

Mrs. Smith's Old Manor Houfe: A Novel.

more from groß vice to piety and virtue, than the church done fince the reformation. Yet the clergy, for their fervit been paid, in that period, by the flate, four hundred mills ling, whilft the methodists have not cost government one i but have been treated with infelt and contempt, by both bill flatesmen.'

This publication is a feafonable antidote against e tempt to revive perfecution, whether on the ground of a or civil opinions.

ART. V. The Old Maner House. A Novel. By Charlotte 12mo. 4 vols. 14s. sewed. Bell, Oxford-street. 1

Mrs. Smith's talents for novel-writing are alread known to the public; and we have had repeat from to acknowlede her merit in a species of compublich, when executed with judgment and ability, in view, is useful, as well as pleasant to those who read amusement: it is therefore the less necessary for us to

not dismiss it without giving a brief outline of its plan.

The principal scene of the tale is one of those spacitient halls, or manor houses, which fill the warm imag
with romantic ideas, and which at once invite and far
venture. The possession of the mansion is an ancient

take an elaborate examination of the prefent work: but

This novel particularly contains many very successful imitaions of the ordinary language of people in different classes of he inferior ranks, which may in some instances remind the eader of that great painter of manners, Henry Fielding. Sereral humourous scenes in higher life are also represented; and from these we shall select a part of the account of a public linner at Rayland Hall:

The whole house was in a buille-and Mrs. Rayland not only in innfual health, but as anxious for the splendour and excellence of ser entertainment, as if she had a deeper design than merely to outhine the newer elegancies of Carloraine caltle. All the operations if Mrs. Lennard and her attendants succeeded happily. By half ifter two all the guests were assembled: by half after three all the ables groaned under the weight of venison and beef. About seventy people were affembled in the hall. In the dining-parlour the party confished of General Tracy, who was placed at Mrs. Lennard's right hand; on her left Mrs. Hollybourn, the wife of the archdeacon of that district, a lady of a most precise, and indeed formidable demeanour: opposite to her, and next to Mrs. Somerive, sat the doctor himself, a dignified clergyman, of profound erudition, very severe morals, and very formal manners; who was the most orthodox of men, never spoke but in sentences equally learned and indisputable, and held almost all the rest of the world in as low estimation as he confidered highly his own family, and above all himfelf.

Between her mother and Mr. Somerive, on the other fide, was placed their only daughter and heirefs, Mifs Ann-Jane-Eliza Hollybourn, who, equally refembling her father and her mother, was the pride and delight of both: possessing something of each of their personal perfections, the was confidered by them a model of loveliness: and her mind was adorned with all that money could purchase. The wainscot complexion of her mamma was set off by the yellow eyebrows and hair of the doctor. His little pug nose, divested of its mulberry hue, which, on the countenance of his daughter, was pronounced to be le petit nex retrousse, united with the thin lips drawn up to make a little mouth, which were peculiar to "his better half," as he facetiously called his wife. The worthy archd acon's short legs detracted less from the height of his amiable daughter, as she had the long waith of her mother, fine fugar-loaf thoulders that were pronounced to be extremely genteel, and a head which looked as if the back of it had by some accident been flattened, since it formed a perpendicular line with her back. To dignify with mental acquirements this epitome of human loveliness, all that education could do had been lavished; masters for drawing, painting, music, French, and dancing, had been assembled around her as soon as she could speak; she learned Latin from her father at a very early peried, and could read any easy tentence in Greek; was learned in attronomy, knew fomething of the mathematics, and, in relief of these more abstruse studies, read Italian and Spanish. Having never heard any thing but her own praises, she really believed herself a miracle of knowledge and accomplishments; and it must be owned, that an audier.ce

Mrs. Smith's Old Manor House: A Novel.

ce less partial than those before whom the generally performight have allowed that the performed very long concertos, and without e.d, with infinite correctnels, and much execution. the made most invergrate likenesses of many of her acquaintand painted landfoapes, where very green trees were reflected y blue water. Her French was most grammatically correct, the accent was fomewhat defective; and the knew all manner ory-could tell the dates of the most execrable actions of the x crable of human beings-and never had occasion to confult, py was her memory, Trufler's Chronology. As it was be-fo it was afferted by the doctor and his wife, that their tor was the most accomplished woman of her age and country; v moli of their acquaintance it was taken for granted. The men, however, whom all these elegancies were probably deto attract, feemed by no means flruck with them : fome of who had approached her on the fuggestion of her being an , had declared that her fortune made no amends for her want of ; and others had been alarmed by the acquifitions which went th beyond those they had made themselves. Thus, at fix-and-(though the lady and her parents, for some reasons of their own, her no more than twenty-two.) Mis Hollybourn was yet unmarrir, of these lovers who had offered, some had been rejected by the , and some by herself. She affected a great indifference, and of the pleafures of purfuing knowledge in an elegant retire-But it was observed, that whenever any young men of preortune, or future expectation, were in the country, Dr. Hollys family returned the vifits of the ladies to whom these gentleif of Rayland. The Doctor, while he did justice to the exishes before him, launched out in very facere praise of the
which produced them: the beautiful park which, he averred,
fivery best venison in the country; the woods abounding in
the extensive ponds, whose living streams contained all manish; the rich meadows below, that fatted such exquisite beef;
therep-walks on the downs above, which sent to table mutton
isled the Welch mutton itself!—then, such gardens for fruit!
evenient poultry yards!—Mrs. Rayland, who loved to hear
the praised, could have listened to such eulogiums for ever;
med totally to have forgotten that, according to the course of
the should be mistress of these good things but a very little time
and that, when a little space in the chancel of the adjoining
would be all she could occupy, they must pass into the posif another.

reader is not to infer, from this specimen, that the novel rely, nor chiefly, of the humorous kind. In many parts it mental; sometimes, though not frequently, it becomes pand once or twice, but very sparingly, political ideas simions are introduced, and the author takes occasion to that generous spirit of freedom, which is displayed tlarge in her "Desimend." In fine, though we cannot at we think the present novel superior to those which has formerly produced, yet it discovers, in a consideree, facility of invention, knowlege of life, and and of language.

VI. Arabian Tales; or, a Continuation of the Arabian Nights rtainments. Confifting of Stories related by the Sultana be Indies, to divert her Husband from the Performance of h Vow; exhibiting a most interesting View of the Religion, s, Manners, Customs, Arts, and Literature, of the Nations of East; and affording a rich Fund of the most pleasing Amuse; which sictitious Writings can supply. Newly translated the original Arabic into French, by Dom Chavis, a Native, and M.Cazotte, Member of the Academy of Dijon. And lated from the French into English, by Robert Heron. 12mo. 1s. 10s. sewed. Bell and Bradfute, &c. Edinburgh; Robin-London. 1792.

refs of morals and the cause of truth, is the utility of that of siction which is supported by supernatural aid; and, is been, or may hereaster be, useful, what ought to be its? That sables or tales of this kind seize, hurry forward, trapture, the undisciplined imagination of youth, there no doubt; and that they therefore tend to awaken cu, which otherwise might continue dormant, is highly. June 1793.



Arabian Tales.

ole:-but it is no less certain that they likewise have a icy to accustom the mind rather to wonder than to inand to feek a folution of difficulties in occult causes, inof seriously resorting to facts. The true answer to this diffiuestion seems to be, that in the progress of mind, ignorance continually find cause to wonder; and will therefore be antly impelled to utter its admiration, and to relate its conjectures. To blame it for not being more enlightenould perhaps be as abfurd as to reproach an infant for eing able to demonstrate a theorem in Euclid. Such consequently, must be written, and will be read. Between noral utility, however, of fables built on the marvellous, if those which originate in true pictures of life and manthere can be no comparison. It is indeed so necessary to e refemblances of man as he really is, in every fabulous tive, that the wildness of romance has only become attracn confequence of this mixture. Accustomed as we are afider the Arabians frequently as a wandering and wild, out feldom as a schooled and scientific, people, we receive tales from them as the genuine produce of the partial ads which they have made in knowlege; though, were they orks of Europeans, we should regard them as the indolent rces of authors, who were either unwilling, or unable, to en attention and excite applause, by exhibiting accurate

woman of pleasure: and something was therefore wanted for the entertainment of those, who chose to withdraw the mind occasionally from the realities of life, yet were unwilling to debase imagination, by turning it to dwell on the brutal grossness of sensual indulgence.

· If those Eastern tales were presented to the European public, at a season which seems to have been peculiarly favourable for their reception; there was, however, still more in their character than in the circumstances of the time, to recommend them to that eager and general interest which they immediately commanded among all classes of The style in which they were written, and the artifice by readers. which they were interwoven together, were, if not absolutely new, yet strange and uncommon. For although the stories in Ovid's books of Metamorphoses be connected by means which, at least in slightness and insufficiency for the purpose of compacting parts into a whole, bear some resemblance to the slender thread by which the narmatives of the Thousand and One Nights are feebly and awkwardly held together; and although Chaucer's Canterbury tales, the multiplicity of broken adventures strangely jumbled together in the Orlando Furioso, and, almost equally, the half Gothic, half-classical fabric of Spencer's Fairy Queen, betray a truly oriental unskilfulness in the art of arrangement: yet, with these works, the more passionate readers of the Arabian Nights Entertainments were, for the most part, little acquainted; and, where there was so much novelty in so many other respects, a small difference in structure was, by the effect of association, naturally increased greatly above its real magnitude.

The manners and customs exhibited in those tales, were at the same time much more strange and singular, than the artlessness of their connexion, or the tedious copiousness of narrative which distinguished them. Beauties, cooped up together by scores, or perhaps hundreds, in a haram, all for the amusement of one man; and he often indifferent, feeble, old, and fitter to repose in the grave or the hospital, than to riot on the nuptial couch: festive entertainments, unenlivened by the sprightly gaieties of the fair sex, or the cheering influence of wine: wives wearing drawers and trousers like their husbands, and men arrayed in loofe robes like their wives, yet at the same time cherishing, as fo many goats, each a venerable length of beard: pastry-cooks making fuch a figure in society, as if the persection of human art were displayed in the composition of a cream-tart or a pye: the art of writing efteemed, fingly, a qualification fitting those skilled in it for the most dignified offices in civil life, as if the smallest possible portion of intellect were not adequate to the formation of the letters in the alphabet, and the joining of these into words and lines: ablutions performed, many times a day, and, at every different time, as scrupulously as Swift's Strephon washed himself, when he was to mount the bed of his angel-Chloe: prayers repeated by all ranks, with serious devotion, almost as often in the day, as our men of fashion call upon their Maker in contemptuous scorn, or in idle merriment: the code of religion almost as frequently and fondly quoted, as our professed wits introduce slily into their conversation fresh repartees from Joe Miller, or eriginal anecdotes from the Tell-tale: judicial astrology constituting the great rule of human life, and every man and woman, as turely as they

Arabian Tales.

nto the world, having their fortunes subjected to the capricious ce of this or that flar :-- all these phænomena are so remote from stoms and manners of Europe, that, when exhibited as entering e ordinary lystem of human affairs, they could not fail to conour eyes, a considerable share of amusive novelty on the chaand events with which they are connected. et, it is probable that the machinery contributed, more than any particular in their character, to obtain to the Arabian Nights ninments, the preference over most of the other works of imaginanich were common in Europe at the time of their first appearance. ians, Genies, Fairies, Lamps, Rings, and other Talismans, in fuch profusion through those volumes, as could not but make ader wonder and stare, who was acquainted only with witches ed on broomsticks, - and with little viewless elves, dancing ocally by moon-light, in small circles on the green, or, in their It splendour and festivity, only lighting up, for their midnight , the deferted hall of some ruinous castle. It has been observed, , by Dr. Hawkesworth, in some one of the first numbers of the aturer, [No. IV.] that these tales please, because, even their nery, wild and wonderful as it is, has its laws, and the magicians schanters perform nothing but what was to be naturally expectm fuch beings, after we had once granted them existence, and ed them with power. But, I should rather suppose that the contrary is the truth of the fact. It is furely the strangeness, the wn nature, the anomalous character of the supernatural agents employed, that enables them to operate fo powerfully on our fears, curiofity, lympathies, and, in short, on all the feelings of

times, even amid the florid verbosity conspicuous in them, as in other oriental compositions, they afford pleasing descriptions of the scenes of external nature. The most agitated workings of the human heart are often displayed in them, with a masterly hand. Being a collection, they contain a medley of comic, tragic, and heroic adventures, the very number and variety of which must necessarily give them confiderable power to please. And, I know not if even the gold, jewels, pearls, rubies, emeralds, the bales of rich stuffs, and superb pellices, the crouded kans, luxurious gardens, and apartments beyond description fumptuous, which are so liberally lavished through those tales, and so oftentationfly described wherever they occur, have not insensibly a greater influence in dazzling and amusing the mind of the reader, than perhaps the pupil of taste will be willing to allow.—Such are the tales which I remember to have eagerly preferred, in the days of childish credulity, to the Seven Wonders of the World, the Adventures of lack the Giant-killer, the Story of the Seven Wise Masters, and even to the History of the Nine Worthies:—and such seem to be the more Ariking peculiarities in their character, by which they have pleased, and still continue to please, almost all ages, all ranks, and all different capacities.'

After these pertinent and generally well-founded remarks on the Arabian tales, the translator proceeds to examine their authenticity; and, as he executes his task with every mark of candour and fidelity, we cannot do better than cite his own words:

 Literary imposition has been frequently attempted with great succels; and it was doubted by many, for some time after the publication of the Arabian Nights Entertainments, that, although represented as compositions of the East, they had been actually fabricated in Europe. Inflances have not been wanting, to justify this suspicion. usual among the classical scholars who flourished about the æra of the revival of letters, to try their proficiency, by producing forgeries in the names of their favourite Greek or Roman authors, with which they now and then actually deceived one another. It had been usual, too, among the sophists of antiquity, to compose declamations and epiftles in the names of celebrated personages, the incidents of whose lives afforded them suitable materials: and it is well known what critical hardiness and acumen the doughty Bentley displayed, in detecting the forgery of the epiftles of Phalaris. The letters of the Turkish Spy, the Castle of Otranto, the poems of Rowley, not to name innumerable other works of the same cast, are good proofs, that the literati of the present age, have not lost either the spirit or the power of literary imposition. But the character of the Arabian tales is so truly Eastern, they bear so many marks which no European hand could have impressed, and carry in them so much of that internal evidence which enforces conviction, still more powerfully than the strongest external testimony, that one could hardly have thought it possible for men of learning to remain long in doubt about their authenticity, had not a writer of no less eminence than Dr. Beattie, even within these last eight or ten years, expressed himself uncertain whether they were M 3 translated



ed or fabricated by M. Galland. However, the Doctor's have probably been fatisfied by this time; for, independently King of France's library, in which the originals have been epolited, the authenticity of these tales has been fully proved onel Capper; and an Arabic copy of them is at this very time, ve, in the hands of the learned Dr. Joseph White of Oxford. once even talked, that the British public might sooner or later oured with a translation of them from the original language by octor's pen; in which they would display more of a genuine al call, and retain more of their native graces, than in the ver-Galland; who, as is common with his countrymen upon fimiafions, has given too much of a Frenchified air to the Eastern rs and modes of address. But, as Major Davy has returned rs and modes of address. But, as Major Davy has returned East, Mr. Badcock is dead, and Dr. Parr now immersed in and preface-writing; there is some reason to fear, that good hite, thus deprived of the allifants of his former Rudies, and d by the laborious activity of a college life, may be deterred ccomplishing so arduous a task.

he following volumes come indeed in a questionable shape, hy, it may be asked, have not Dom Donnis Chavis and M. ic, stood forward personally to state the circumstances of their aking? Why has it been left to nameless editors to assert the ticity of these Tales, and explain their connexion with the nd and One Nights?—But, this notwithstanding, these addiales are undoubtedly genuine. I have not been informed wheely make a part of Dr. White's copy; but I believe they are sown to be in the King of France's library, as is represented in

writing in an affumed character and manner. I have even remarked, fingular as the circumstance may appear, that while every thing is correctly oriental in the text, the two translators have fometimes committed errors of ignorance in their attempts to explain difficulties and peculiarities in the notes. Upon the whole, were I to hazard a conjecture, I should suppose that advantage may have been taken of the popularity of the Arabian Nights Entertainments, and these new stories interwoven into the same texture, in order to give them the same currency; but Eastern they undoubtedly are.'

As reviewers, labourers for the public, it is here our duty to flate, in support of the translator's arguments, that we have carefully read through the four volumes, purposely to discover what were the probabilities concerning their being original or forged tales; and, as far as internal evidence can affist us; which we too consider in reality as the best of evidence, we are inclined to believe that they are authentic.

Of their merit, to those who have read the Arabian Nights' Entertainments, we need only say that we consider them as nearly, if not as wholly, equal to that work. As the translator remarks, 'they are a medley of comic, tragic, and heroic tales.' The story of Habib, in particular, possesses beauties rarely to be found in this kind of composition; it charms by its poetry, rivets attention by its interest, and elevates by its morality. The infancy and education of the hero are admirably conceived for the purpose of giving probability to the association prowess of his manhood: but the characteristic feature in him which most delights and most instructs us, is his fortitude; a virtue of such high importance to man, that it never should be forgotten, nor neglected by the writer of siction, who intends by his sables to benefit his species.

The translator, a writer of no mean talents, apologizes for errors, by pleading the impatience of his booksellers, who obliged him to hurry through the work. He has, however, executed his task with spirit: but had he not told us so, we should have discovered that it had been done with haste. It is perhaps a duty to him, and to our readers, to point out some of the passages which we conceive to be most offensive to the English idiom. Anxious as we are to be just, yet to notice every trip made in a work of sour volumes, written under such circumstances, would perhaps be invidious, and certainly too statiguing even for reviewers.

Vol. I.—(p. 4.) Tell my benefactor that I fball [will] offer, &c.—(p. 74.) Paffed near by its walls.—(p. 79.) The place which is first opened up.—(p. 81.) Happen you here.—(p. 82.) The opening up of the adventure.—(p. 84.) That Chebib whose example teaches generosity and [who] is amodel.—(p. 86.)

M 4

Reynolds's Dramatift: a Comedy.

s which already embalm the apartment.—(p. 88.) Come a refreshment.—(p. 106.) Never saw I so beautiful eyes. 20.) He was already married and lain with his wife.—
.) Received him in so open and affectionate a manner as ade him easy.

II.—(p. 199.) Sinkarib's officers were not in a hafte.—
) Low rabble that [as] they are.—(p. 265.) In a little I wife to an emir.—(p. 268.) You have guested the way of

heaven.—A notion strikes my head.—Your son is making g progress.—Improved by a rapid progress.

111.—(p. 165.) To take the utmost pains of her edu-(p. 298.) How dearly must it cost myself [me]—The

low that pierces.

fourth volume, which, as the preface informs us, is ed by another hand, has one peculiarly offensive blemishe, which is frequently repeated; that of mingling the persons singular and plural in the same sentence, and indiscriminately thou, or you. We consider this pracalmost unpardonable in poetry: but in prose it has cuse: it is a degree of carelessness that insults the

have before allowed, but, in order to leave no falle imprefn our readers' minds, we repeat, that the translation, it must be said to have faults, is, on the whole, spirited tasing. imagination of the illiterate, that is of the majority, is much more attentive to the present than to the past; and that, if it be gratified with new incidents, each in itself animating and diverting, it seldom has the strength or the patience to inquire into what connection any or all of them may or ought to have with preceding or future events. Confidered as a whole, the comedy of the Dramatist is little better than a farrago of incongraities: but many of its individual scenes are spirited, and frequently display an acute degree of observation on life and It has likewise one species of unity, which is indeed ats chief attraction; and this confifts in the incessant propensity of Vapid to render every word, act, and person, subservient to his scheme of writing comedies. The author seems luckily to have secollected his own fituation; and he has painted it, fome few farcical strokes excepted, with confiderable force and accuracy. We confider this as a striking example, highly worthy the attention of dramatic writers, of the effects which may be produced by a firong conception of, and unvaried attention to, character: for these circumstances, and these alone, gave popularity to this comedy on the stage; although, in the closet, it will much more frequently excite difgust than produce pleasure.

The following scene is one of those which most contributed to make the play successful; and though it be an animated display of the character of Vapid, yet it will afford the reader, who is possessed of taste and judgment, sufficient proofs of the farcical

and incongruous spirit that pervades the whole:

'Ast V. Scene-Lady Waitfor't's Apartment-Lady Waitfor't discovered at her Toilette, Letty waiting.

Lady. Mr. Vapid not come yet, Letty!

Letty. No, Ma'am - but the fervant who found him at the tavern fid he would be here immediately.

'Lady. I protest, I am almost weary of them all; (noise without) to who's there.

[Letty listens and returns.

Letty. Mr. Vapid at last; now, pray your Ludyship, insist on his explaining every thing to my Lord.

Lady. Yes; but vilely as he has treated me, I must still be calm.
[Vapid, putting his head in.]

Lady. Walk in, Sir, walk in.

· Vapid. No, Ma'am-I'd rather stay herc.

Lady. I beg you'll be seated, Mr. Vapid—I have something of consequence to impart to you.

[Vapid, gently coming in.]

Vapid. I'd never have ventured, but in hopes of feeing my dear Marianne.

Lady. Indeed, I will not detain you a moment.

"Papid. Very well, Ma'am, if that's the case—(flowly seating bimlif.) It's very alarming. [Aside.

· Lady.



ady. Letty, leave the room, and fasten the door. [Letty exit. apid. No-no-don't do that, I befeech you.

ady. You're very much fright'ned, Mr. Vapid-I hope you suppose I have any design against you.

apid. I don't know, really, Ma'am-fuch things are perfectly tic.

ady. Well, but to release you from your fears, I'll tell you why given you this trouble-my business. Mr. Vapid. was to conwith you on the farcical affair that happened at Neville's.

apid. Farcical!
ady. Yes, Sir, the farcical affair that happened at Mr. Neville's. apid. Farcical! what, my epilogue, Ma'am-I hope you don't to reflect on that.

ady. No, Sir-far from it - I have no doubt but it is a very elecomposition.

apid. Doubt! here it is !- read it! - the very first production of e! a regular climax of poetic beauty!-the last line the ne plus of genius.

ady. But to be ferious, Mr. Vapid.

spid. Why, I am ferious - and I'll tell you, Lady Waitfor't-"tis the e of an epilogue, and the last scene of a comedy that always distracts tis the reconciliation of lovers-there's the difficulty !- You fo in real life, I dare fay.

ady. Yes-but, Mr. Vapid, this affair concerns us excessively,

wish to know what is to be done.

apid. I'll tell you-write a play, and bad as it may possibly be, s a translation from the French, and interweave a few compli* Vapid. Indeed, Ma'am, I am not.

Marianne. There now—I told you so—upon my word you rely too much on your time of life—you do indeed—you think because you're a little the worse for wear, you may trust yourself any where—but you're mistaken—you're not near so bad as you imagine—nay, I don't slatter, do I, Mr. Vapid?

* Vapid. Indeed, Ma'am, you do not.

Lady. Look'ye, Miss—your insolence is not to be borne—you have been the chief cause of all my perplexities.

" Marianne. Nay, aunt, don't say that.

Lady. No matter—your behaviour is shameless, and it is high time. I exerted the authority of a relation—you are a disgrace to me—to yourself, and your friends—therefore I am determined to put into execution a scheme I have long thought of.

" Mai i.mne. What is it? Something pleasant, I hope.

Lady. No, you shall retire to a convent, till you take possession of your fortune.

* Marianne. A convent! Oh Lord! I can't make up my mind to it, now don't, pray don't think of it—I declare it's quite shocking.

Lady. It is a far better place than you deserve; my resolution is fixed, and we shall see whether a life of solitude and austerity will not awaken some sense of shame in you.

Marianne. Indeed, I can't bear the thoughts of it.—Oh, do speak to her, Mr. Vapid—tell her about the nasty monks, now do. A convent! mercy! what a check to the passions? Oh! I can't bear it.

"Vapid. Gad, here's a sudden touch of tragedy - pray, Lady Waitfor't, reflect - you can't send a lady to a convent when the theatres are open—see, it will break the poor girl's heart - don't weep so, Marianne.

' Marianne. I can't help it—it will be the death of me! Pray, my dear aunt.

· Lady. Not a word—I am determined—to-morrow you shall leave this country, and then I have done with you for ever.

· Marianne. Oh! my poor heart!

· Vapid. See! She'll faint!

Marianne. Oh! Oh! Oh!

'Marianne faints into Lady Waitfor't's arms.

* Lady. Oh! I have gone too !ar, what's to be done!

* Vapid. Some relief immediately, or the !!! expire—where the

* Vapid. Some relief immediately, or she'll expire—where shall I fly, - I'll call the servants.

* Lady. No, 'twill be too late—I have some drops in this closet may recover her—hold her for a moment, and for Heaven's sake, take care of her.

' Marianne lays in Vapid's arms.

- "Vapid. Here's a fituation!—Poor girl! how I pity her! I really loved her.
 - · Marianne. Did you really love me, Mr. Vapid?
 - · Vapid. Hey-day! recovered! here's incident!
 - · Marianne. But did you really love me, Mr. Vapid?
 - · Vapid. Yes, I did here's stage effect!

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arianne. And would you have really run away with me, Mr.

pid. Yes, I really would.

arianne. Then come along this moment.

pid. Hush!—here's the old lady! keep dying as before, and freet the business—more equivoque! * Re-enter Lady Waitfor't.

dy. Well, Mr. Vapid, how does the do? Lord! the's in firong

fions.

pid. Yes, Ma'am, the's dying, where are the drops ?

pid. There are very few-are there any more of the same

dy. Yes, plenty. oid. Fetch them—'tis the only hope—if you have any hartshorning a little of that—our feelings all need it.

dy. Very true, Mr. Vapid, I declare to you I am quite shocked.

arianne. Well, Mr. Vapid, now let's run away-come-why, re you thinking of?

pid. My last act, and I feargrianne. What do you fear?

pid. That it can't be managed-let me fee-we certainly run and the returns-faith! I must see her return. arianne. No, no, pray let us be gone, think of this another particular day's work. His notes having acquired a certain extent, he printed them under different titles; and, at last, under that of Institutes of Moral Philosophy*. Since his health obliged him to retire from the satigue of collegiate instruction, he employed himself in recalling labours that were past, and in falling up general titles already investigated; some of which, though necessary in the first introduction of youth to the study of ethics, are very properly omitted in a performance which is intended for public inspection.

The present work is divided into two parts; the first of which states historically 'the most general appearances in the mature and state of man;' the second deduces from these appearances the specific excellencies of which he is susceptible, and the laws by which his conduct, both as an individual, and

a member of fociety, ought to be regulated.

The historical part is divided into three chapters. The first treats of 'man's place and description in the scale of being; the second examines the 'characteristics of his intelligence; and the third traces the steps of 'this progressive nature.'

Having laid this foundation in history, the author proceeds, in the second part of his work, (vol. 2d.) to examine the 'specific good, incident to human nature;' and to treat of moral law, or the distinction of good and evil, and its systematic application; which he explains under the heads of ethics, juris-

prudence, and politics.

In discussing questions which, since the age of Socrates, have formed the main subject of philosophy, the author disclaims all pretenfions to originality. 'There is not perhaps in this collection, he observes, any leading thoughts, or principle of moment, which may not be found in the writings of others; and if the author knew where, he might have been as well employed in pointing them out, as in composing his book: the object is not novelty, but benefit to the student.' This confession was not necessary for the information of those who are acquainted with the writings of the Stoic philosophers; which Dr. F. has followed throughout, with the exception that does honour to his judgment, of rejecting or fostening their paradoxes: but the stoical philosophy, stripped of its paradoxes, will be found to coincide in all effential points, respecting the nature, the duties, and the happiness, of man, considered as an individual, or as a member of fociety, with the doctrines to clearly explained, and so powerfully enforced, in Aristotle's Ethics and Politics. Dr. F., therefore, may be confidered as a Peripatetic with a strong bias toward Stoicism; and it must

^{*} See Review, vol. xiiii. p. 237.



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knowleged that he could not have followed, in his prens, any school better calculated to enlarge the views and alt the sentiments of youth; to inspire them with a just of their duty, and to animate them with a firm resolution form it.

the metaphyfical part of this work (for Mind, which is the t of metaphyfics, forms the principal branch of the history in.) Dr. F. declares himself an enemy to the scepticulm of rn times; the foundation of which, he thinks, with Dr. has been laid in the doctrine of ideas as maintained by es, Locke, and others. Though the observations of Dr.

afon, and of Dr. Reid himself, perfectly coincide on this it with the metaphysical doctrines of Aristotle, yet the ags of that philosopher are so much confined to the learned, he revival of his opinions, in opposition to those of Locke Berkley, has in some measure the effect of novelty.

a specimen of the manner in which Dr. F. treats obyfical subjects, we shall insert the following passage e subject of ideas; which, we think, will very well rethe reader's attention:

lan, though in some instances he may be found to act in the r of a mere animal, yet, in most instances, he proceeds upon owledge of an end, and upon his choice of means for the attantal it: He sometimes acts upon the conception of an object that

. Such were the images, or little models of things, which, according to Democritus, and Epicurus, were continually flying off from their substances; floating in space; entering the organs of animals; and, by their assemblage in the brain, producing all the modifications of sensation, thought, and volition:

Nunc agere incipiam tibi, quod vehementer ad has res Attimet, esse ea qua rerum simulacra vocamus, Qua quasi membrana summo de corpore rerum

Direptæ volitant ultro citroque per auras. Luc. lib. 3. ver. 33.

And Cicero, in flating this Epicurean hypothesis, has the following words: "Imagines quæ idola nominant quorum incursione non solum videamus, sed etiam cogitemus." De sinibus, lib. 1. c. 6.

According to this fystem, the thoughts and conceptions, of which the mind is conscious, are in reality a mere collection of little images,

obtruded upon it from abroad.

A similar language has been adopted in modern times, and repeated without sufficient intimation whether it be meant in a sigurative or literal sense. Thus, Mr. Hobbes, so prone to materialism, and to the use of corporeal images, has led the way, and been sollowed with little variation, though perhaps with more respect to the distinction between mind and matter, by Des Cartes, Malebranche, Locke, and others.

These authors differ somewhat in the methods they have purfued; but all agree, in resting their theories on the substitution of images, or, as they term them, ideas, for the simple apprehension of

things.

"In this train Hobbes fets out with the following assumption, which he feems to think so evident, as not to need any proof: "We must remember and acknowledge," says he, "that there be in our minds continually certain images or conceptions of things without us. Insomuch that, if a man could be alive, and all the rest of the world annihilated, he should, nevertheless retain the image thereof, and all those which he had before seen or perceived in it."

"Upon this hypothesis, the phenomena of memory and imagination, according to him, are fully explicable; "for, as the motion of the water," he says, "continues after the stone struck in it, or the wind by which it is agitated, has ceased; so these images continue in the mind, after the external cause is removed, and are termed

Memory."

* So far there appears to be little difference between the images of Hobbes and the idolæ or finulacra of Democritus and Epicurus. Others have exchanged the term image for that of idea, a term borrowed from Plato, but in which he expressed not any particular perception or apprehension; but the standard model or conception of genus or species, (the one in many *) after which individuals are formed: But, under the term Idea, as it it now employed, we are less to understand some type, image, or representation, on the one hand, or mere notion and mental apprehension on the other, as best suits the purpose of argument on the subject.

Fergulon's Principles of Moral and Political Science.

common language, our idea of a subject is the same as our or conception of it: But Mr. Locke frequently feems to intend ing different from this, as, when he flates that we cannot have edge, where we have not ideas. This is undoubtedly true; idea mean the fame thing as notion, it were certainly nugatory erve, that we cannot have knowledge of a subject, if we have

y notion of it. he substitution of corporeal for mental attributes, with a view lain the latter, is curioufly exemplified in the following paffage ted from Malebranche: "We are accustomed," he fays, "to wish in the mind two faculties, Understanding and Will. These ift explain in the outfet; for, it does not appear that our notions as of them are sufficiently clear and distinct: But, because these are abstract, and do not enter into the imagination, it feems to express them under some image of the properties that beo matter, which being eafily imagined, will render the meanthese terms, Understanding and Will, more distinct, and even familiar." After some caution, not to think the mental and eal qualities the same, this author proceeds to observe, " that, lies are susceptible of figure and motion, so mind is susceptible as and dispositions. The first," he says, " are its figure; the its motions," &c. &c.

befe allegorical substitutions are not mentioned with a view to their applications, or to take any benefit from the facility they pposed to give in the study of the mind. It were, indeed, difficonceive what benefit they should yield; if, on the pretence of ling a fubject, they only divert the attention

ranted to deny it altogether *. And hence the scepticism of ingenious men, who, not seeing a proper access to knowledge, through the medium of ideas, without considering whether the road they had been directed to take was the true, or a false one, denied the possibility of arriving at the end.

The reality of knowledge, nevertheless, however little to be explained by any corporeal analogy, may be safely assumed, and the sacts which relate to the attainment of it; be considered as an im-

portant part in the history of mind.

There was little progress of knowledge, so long as men of ingenuity supposed science to consist in explaining the primary sacts of which nature has given us the use, but not the theory: Such, in the material system of nature, are the laws of gravitation and motion. It was vain to think of explaining them; but, so soon [as soon] as they were considered as sundamental in nature, to be considered, not in respect to their origin, but in respect to their applications and consequences, science has made a rapid progress in explaining the phenomena of that system in which they prevail.

[To be continued.]

ART. IX. Arius flain and Socious mortally avounded; by scripturally proving a Plurality of Persons in the Godhead; that Jesus Christ has all the Divine Names applied to him; and that he is essentially Christ, the Wisdom and the Power of the Godhead. Addressed to Joseph Priessley, LL.D. F.R.S. By An Old Seaman. 8vo. pp. 242. 2s. 6d. sewed. Jordan. 1792.

GROTIUS wrote divinity for the Dutch sailors,—satisfied, no doubt; that it would be acceptable to them: but we had so conception that this was in any respect the taste of our English tars, nor that a fingle cabin was devoted to its study. On reading, therefore, the fignature of this work, we at first had our suspicions of its reality; nor was the prosessional language, with which the preface commences, of Dr. Priestley's artillery being only fingle-cast, and honey-combed with rult,' sufficient to remove them: but when the author assures us that he is not only an old but a grey-headed feaman, and that he has used the seas for forty years, we are bound to give him full credit. He will allow us, nevertheless, to observe that we apprehend there is scarcely a seaman in the navy who has given so much attention to the subject of theology, or who Is so intimately acquainted with the Hebrew and Greek scrip-Great has been the pleasure that this sludy has evitently afforded him; and no man, we are perfuaded, can be more confident of the truth of the system which he espouses; much question, however, his ability to carry conviction the minds of his readers. As he purposes to tread on new

^{• *} See the writings of Dr. Berkley and Mr. Hume.'

Arius flain and Socious mortally wounded.

d, and to convince by new arguments, it will be unary for us to take any notice of the great firefs which he on the plural termination of the Hebrew word היה אלהים , as denoting a plurality in the divine nature, fince molt ous Trinitarians, we believe, are ready to abandon this id; we shall therefore proceed to notice his observations e Cherubim, which the Old Scaman conceives to have 'hieroglyphic emblems of the divine Trinity, with the ood comprized.' An entire chapter is devoted to this 3, in which he maintains that ' Ezekiel's cherubim conan intelligible representation of the Trinity;' and after g what he calls his explanation of this intelligible repretion, he adds, whoever duly confiders what has been inless he wilfully shuts the eyes of his intellectual faculties if truth, and what ought to be deemed demonstrative iony, must, from what has been advanced, be coned to acknowledge, that the Cherubim led to a clear unocal idea, if not to a demonstration, that there are three ns in the Godhead :' yet, in his clear demonstration, he mitted to explain how two Cherubim, or four faces, can fent three persons, and how Ezekiel's description, which ater would find great difficulty to express on the canvas, onvey to the reader an intelligible representation. The

Jehovah! I have gotten a person of the Essence existing!" And why this ecstasy? Because she had experienced a state of holiness, and had also selt the bitter evil and baleful consequences of sin.' P. 62.

Hutchinsonians and Swedenborgians have a knack at discovering important doctrines in almost every text of scripture. These gentlemen may esteem themselves gisted: but it is an endowment which we cannot admire. Insidels must smile at such solemn trissing: it is certain that they can never be converted to the saith by making the scripture a nose of wax. The Old Scaman's comment is as ingenious, and as little to the purpose, as that of Emanuel Swedenborg on Gen. i. 1. In the beginning, God created the beavens and the earth, which he explains to signify, "In the beginning, God created truth and goodness." In spite of the good intention of such writers, we cannot avoid condemning them as taking unwarrantable liberties with the sacred records.

The admirers of such expositions will be delighted with the Old Seaman, who abounds in them. 'Exod. iii. 14. God says I AM THAT I AM, and, John xviii. 5. Christsays, I AM THAT I AM.' Thus he demonstrates that Christ is Jehovah: let any person, however, turn to the passage in John, and read to the 8th verse, he will find the text to contain nothing more than Christ's acknowledgment of his being Jesus of Nazareth, and that he does not in the smallest degree refer to his divinity.

When the common reading will not answer the Seaman's spurpose, or he is apprehensive that it may be quoted against him, he boldly undertakes a new version; thus, in chap. ii. 179. he translates I Cor. i. 30. "who has been made unto the wisdom of God," which is surely a very strange rendering of ordizate Green. Coloss. i. 15. he chuses with equal boldics to translate "The first cause of the whole creation."

In a possession, the author makes an apology for a Seaman's riting on a subject so foreign from the line of his profession; doing which he favours his readers with farther proofs of his arning, in comments on the scriptures of the New Testament, thich he quotes in the original Greek: at the same time that styles Jesus Christ our High Admiral, in plain honest Enginebut this allusion is not new:—we meet with it on almost tombstone in the churchyards at Brighthelmstone, Marke. &c. &c.

The learned among our orthodox readers will coincide with sour opinion of the Old Seaman, who had been much remployed on the quarter-deck, ordering his men to haul the braces, &c. than in writing some parts of this book: though he is entitled to the praise of having read, studied, and an pains, he evidently betrays a want of sound judgment, fidence, and candour.

N 2

ART. X. Scotife Poems, reprinted from scarce Editions. lected by John Pinkerton, F. S. A. Perth, &c. Svo. 3 Vols

Boards. Dilly. 1792.

WITH laudable zeal has the Scotish nation lately released from oblivion a great number of those poets who is trated the dawn of their literature. Among their printers, Morisons of Porth have deserved well of the public, by elepocket editions of Dunbar, and other versifiers, whose we merited preservation; and among their editors none more Mr. Pinkerton seems industriously to have searched and we to have gleaned among their remnants of antiquity. We already followed him through three similar publications.

The present collection is dedicated to the Earl of Buc in a letter which is very characteristic of the writer; as ushered in by thirty pages of valuable preliminaries; for seauthor quaintly but not unfi ly styles them. In these prelimaries, he corrects a former error respecting Lady Culros, another concerning the antiquity of Philotus: he brings to an original letter of Sir David Lindsay, written at Antwer 1531; and he enlarges on the first specimens of Scotish ty graphy, hearing the date of 1508, from which some Eng

The Nigromancie thais saw I eik anone, Of Benytas, Bongo, and Frier Bacone, With many subtill point of juglairie; Of Flanders piis made many precious stone, Ane greit laid sadill of a siching bone, Of ane nutmug thay made a Monk in hy Ane paroche kirk of ane penny pye: And Benytas of an mussel made an aip, With many other subtil mow and jaip.'

The history of Robin Hood is well known. Those of Gilbert and of Benytas are, we believe, also English; as well as

the legends of Friar Bungay, and Friar Bacon.

'Squire Meldrum is an historical romance, chiefly interesting in Scotland. The morality in eight interludes, by the same author, is, on account of the form and of the matter, highly curious: it is a satirical drama, the construction of which may furnish many hints to some suture Aristophanes. We shall subjoin part of the act entitled the Parliament of Correction:

Reformation.
Syrs, stand abak, and hald yow coy;
I am the king Correction's boy,
Cum heir to dreis his place.
Se that ye mak obedience
Unto his nobill Excellence,
Fra time ye se his face.

For he makkis reformationnis
Out thruch all Cristin nationis,
Quhair he findis greit debaitis,
And, sa far as I undirstand,
He sall reforme into this land
All the three estaitis,' &c.

Distait, Flattry, Fasset.

Distait. Bruder, hard ye yon proclamatioun?
I dreid full fair for reformatioun,
Yone message makis me mangit.
Quhat is your counsale to me tell?
Remane we heir, be God himsell,
We will all thre be hangit.

Flattry. I will ga to spiritualitie,
And preiche out thruche his dyocie,
Quhar I will be unknawin;
Or keip me cloise into sum closter,
With manie petions paternoster,
Till all the boist be blawin.

Distait. I will be trettit as ye ken

I will be trettit as ye ken
With all my maisters the marchand men
Qhilk can mak small debait.
Ye ken rycht few of thame that thryves,
Or can begyle the landwart wyves,

But

Pinkerton's Selection of Scotish Poems.

But me thair man Diffait.

Now Falfat quhar fall be thy chift?

Tow thou that I be daft?

Na, I will leif a lofty lyfe

Witthouttyn ony flurt or thryfe,

Amang the men of craft.

try. I will remane na mair befyde vow,

I counfal yow richt weil to gyde yow,

Byd nocht upoun Correctioun.

Fairweill, I will na langar tary.

I pray the alreche Quene of Fary

To be your protectioun.

Heir fall the thre Estaities compeir to the Parliament; and the fall say:

My prudent lordis of the thre estaitis, It is our will, aboif all oydir thing, For to reforme all thay that makkis debaitis; Contrair the richt quhilk daily dois maling. And thay that dois the commoun weill down thring With help and counsall of king Correctioun, It is our will for to mak punishing. And plane oppressions put to subjectioun.

gence. All mener of men I warne, that bene oppres, Cum and complene, and thay fall be redreft; For quhy it is yone nobill princis willis

Behald as the loin lurkis even lyk a thieff; Mony wicht workmen ye haif brocht to mischieff, My foverane lord Correctioun, I mak yow supplicatioun, Put thir tryit traitouris from Christis congregationn. orrectioun. As ye haif devysit, but dowt it sall be done. Cum heir anone, my serjandis, and do your det sone. Put first the thre pilouries into the prison strang: Howbeid ye hang thame hastelly ye do thame na wrong.'

Bir David Lindsay published other poems, some of which re printed at Rouen.

The comedy of Philotus is contained in Mr. Garrick's coltion of old plays now lodged in the British Museum. It apus to have been written shortly before its first publication 1603, and is chiefly composed in a stanza similar to that ployed by Drayton in his admirable poem, Nymfidia. wal of the piece is expressed in the motto from Ovid,

Siqua velis apte nubere, nube pari.
se most favourable specimen of the author's talent is to be and in the Oratioun of the Yonker Flavius to the Madyn: t the whole poem is written with ease, elegance, and smooth-6. The conjuration may ferve as a specimen:

· First I conjure the be Sanct Marie, Be alrifch king and quene of Farie, And be the Trinitie to tarie, Quhill thow the treuth have taull: Be Christ and his apostilles twell, Be sanctis of heaven and hewis of hell, Be auld Sanct *Tastian himself, Be Peter and be Paull. Be Matthew, Mark, be Luik and Johne,

Be Lethé, Styx, and Acherone, Be bellische furies everie one, Quhair Pluto is the prince: That thou depart and do na wonder, Be lichtning, quhirlewinde, hayle nor thunder, That beast nor bodie get na blunder, Nor harme quhen thow gais hence.

 Throw power I charge the of the paip, Thow neither girne, gowle, glowme, nor gaip, Lyke anker, faidell, unfe or sip, Lyke owle nor alrische else:

Mr. Pinkerton mistakenly conjectures Austin to be here the true ming: it appears, from a gothic legend of Saint George, versioned Sandvig, that Tacian was a heathen who scoffed at this pious ight, and was afterward converted by his miracles.

Kett's Juvenile Poems.

Lyke fyrie dragon full of feir Lyke warwolf, lyon, bull, nor beir, Bot pass you hence as thow come heir, In lykenes of thyselfe.'

irne, which means to gobble, and perhaps to bleat; er, which means a goat; and faidell, which means an as; not explained in the glossary; which is a deficient, but to-

aly correct, performance.

he metrical romances, which follow, are a valuable preMany, indeed, are extant in the antient dialect of Engbut those which illustrate the achievements of Arthur are
liarly interesting, not only because they chronicle the
did adventures of a native king, but because they have
me so popular in every European language (Sir Lybius beaid to exist even in the dialect of the modern Jews.) as to
rehend a greater mass of poetical tradition than even the
of the early crusaders, which surnished to Ariosto the
estable, and to Tasso much of the decoration, of their
artal poems. Robert of Glocester has thrown into rhyme
Geoffry of Monmouth relates concerning Arthur; and
forms us that Richard Cuer de Lyon, the cotemporary of

Macmorne, inherited the famous fword Caliburn. The Arthurre, Sir Iwayne, and Sir Launfale, have been

There is a great difference between the actual possession of genius. and that ardent love of its productions, which is apt to excite readers who have any degree of feeling and fondness for imitation, to try the power of youthful fancy in thort poetical excursions. The reputation of a poet ought to be the exclusive henour of those who display the ef. folions of a fervid imagination and a keen fentibility expressed in elegant language, and corrected by a delicate and refined tafte, Such weak efforts as the following veries ought of course to be confidered rather as the homage, which their admirer pays to the Muses, than as preferring any claim to public notice as their favourite. They were written merely to beguile some lonely hour, or to please some absent friend, and now bring to remembrance those pains and those pleasures, which can return no more. If they should at last have the good fortune to furnish a few readers with slight amusement, the author will enjoy the pleasure of not having published them in vain."

This must disarm criticism, if inclined to severity.-The poems certainly discover marks of a youthful mind; and had they been written at a later period of life, would no doubt have possessed more of the fire which Mr. Kett manifests in his Bampton Lectures. They are, however, classical, and intimate an acquaintance with poets of the most correct talle, as they have none of those salse ornaments which abound so much in the productions of the poetafters of the present day. We give the following as specimens of the author's vigour of fancy, and

dexterity in translation:

SONNET I.

· To the River WYE.

O Wyg, romantic stream! thy winding way Invites my lonely steps, what time the night Smiles with the radiance of the moon's pale light, That loves upon thy quivering flood to play. O'er thy steep banks the rocks fantastic tower, And fling their deepening shadow cross the stream; To fancy's eye worn battlements they seem, Which on some beetling cliff tremendous lower. Hark! Ec no speaks, and from her mazy cave Sportive returns the failor's frequent cry, An! how unlike thy old bard's minstrelfy Warbled in wild notes to the haunted wave ! Unlike as feems the hurricane's rude sweep, To the light breeze that lulls thy placed deep.

Inscription.

· For a Coppice near BLSFIELD.

 Heedless wanderer, come not here With clamorous voice, or footstep rude; For Harmony's sweet sake forbear To violate this folitude.

Kett's Juvenile Paems.

For ne'er the Nightingale forfakes
This haunt, where hawthern bioffoms fpring;
Veil'd in the shade of tangled brakes,
She calls her neftlings forth to sing.

Hark! catch you not their warbling wild That foftly flows the leaves among? Now loudly thrill, now fweetly mild.

The descant of their thrilling sung.

The earliest primrose of the year Beneath delights its slowers to spread; The clustering harebell lingers near The coussip's dew-bespangled bed.

And while the western gales allay
The fervour of the noon-tide heat,
They whisper where, retir'd from day,
The violet scents her low retreat.

See, sparkling with a tremulous gleam, The rivulet meand'ring flows; While on the surface of the stream, The filver lifty quivering blows.

But, heedless wanderer, come not here, This feast was not prepar'd for thee; Unless thy heart feels nought more dear, Than NATURE and SIMPLICITY.

K. remarks that there is a fimilar cast of composition in

Mr. Kett has given a translation of Jortin's poem on the nature of the foul, which we were tempted to transcribe, but we find ourselves too much narrowed in our limits. The present translator modestly 'wishes, by this impersect version, to give the English reader some idea of Jortin's elegance of sancy, and to excite the scholar to peruse the original verses, which are remarkable for their classical purity of style. We are always delighted when we meet with any proper tribute of respect to the memory of a man whom we well knew, and could not too much esteem.

ART. XII. A Journal during a Refidence in France, from the Beginning of August to the Middle of December 1792. To which is added, an Account of the most remarkable Events that happened at Paris from that Time to the Death of the late King of France. By John Moore, M. D. In 2 Vols. Vol. I. 8vo. pp. 502. 7s. Boards. Robinsons. 1793.

THE works of Dr. Moore are so well and so advantageously known to the public, that it may, perhaps, be deemed sufficient information, concerning the present performance, to say, that its principal features refemble those of his preceding publications. In ordinary hands, such a journal of the proceedings in France, during the time above specified, would have exhibited little better than the occurrences of a stale newspaper: but Dr. Moore's narrative gives us the reflections of his own mind, as well as the history of the transactions that were passing under his eye: his journal forces a connected feries of unexampled events, terminating in one dreadful catastrophe; and, from the grotesque characters of many of the actors, it may be considered as a fort of tragic-comedy, in which the incidents are described with threwd observation of the wickedness and follies of menalternately impressed by the pathetic, and enlivened and seasoned by the humourous.

In his road to Paris, August 5th, 1792, Dr. Moore found the inhabitants of Abbeville as gay as ever. They discovered no fear of the Austrians and Prussians; nor did care of any kind

feem to disturb their minds:

I thought them (fays he,) equally chearful and rather better dressed than I ever observed the peasants of this part of France before; it is Sunday, and of course they are all in their best cloaths. In the higher ranks, in every country, it is not uncommon to see people richly dressed with very forrowful countenances. I do not recollect to have ever met with any French people of the lower order, male or female, in town or country, with a forrowful face, when they imagined themselves well dressed.

When

Moore's Journal during a Residence in France.

en the Doctor, and his fellow-traveller, Lord Lauderdale, t supper, the landlord of the Inn read to them part of a which he had just received from Paris, giving an account tions for declaring the King's forfeiture to the crown. expressed surprise at this, and I asked the landlord what he t of it .- Mais-ma for, Monfieur, that is, Faith, fir, faid hemphasis and gesticulation—and then pausing, he turned wer into a question, saying, " What would you have me ik?" This was the amount of the landlord's opinion, he never varied, though he spoke several times afterwards fame subject.' Dr. Moore could not have better described, ndred pages, the irrefolution which pervaded the greater the French nation.

most commendable trait of this performance is that f discrimination, which, while it arraigns and abominates rocities of a few wicked demagogues and their execrable ients, still compassionates the nation at large, and even ds the fentiments by which it was animated. The folpaffage, which we infert as a specimen of the work, will ith the approbation of all those, whose approbation is to

Briton defirable.

sidft the diforders and fad events which have taken place in this of late, it is impossible not to admire the generous spirit which il over the nation in support of its independency. is, I heard of a lady who had offered to the National Affembly,

discriminate with candour—he will envy freedom to no nation; he will praise that public spirit in another people which warms his own breast, and which he admires in his own countrymen; he will not rejoice in the calamities of France, and wish so many millions of his follow-creatures to be again forced under the yoke of despotism, merely because France has formerly been at war with Great Britain.

But France may be at war with Great Britain again.

If that should happen, France will then be the enemy of Great Britain, and every true British subject will be the enemy of France,

and do all in his sphere to subdue and bring her to reason.

But, in the mean time, should a band of wicked men acquire andue influence with the people of France by zealous pretensions to patriotism, or should the expected National Assembly itself, through solly, ambition, or barbarity, or by a combination of all the three, blast the hopes of a free constitution, and ruin the happiness of their country, still the cause for which the revolution was undertaken remains the best in which men can engage; the folly, ambition, and barbarity of individuals, may consign their own names to the execration of mankind, but cannot diminish the intrinsic value of freedom.

It is, however, when the cause of liberty is in danger of being dishonoured by some who pretend to be its supporters, that those who have a just sense of the blessings it confers will avow their sentiments, and refuse to join the undiscerning herd, who turn that indignation, which is due to the wretches who disgrace the cause of freedom, against freedom itself. It is at such times that their avowed attachment is of most importance, because it is then only that, in a free country, the interested votaries of power dare to preach their slavish

doctrines.

There was no need to inculcate the value of liberty when the tyranny of Louis XIV, was dragooning his subjects out of their country, or thutting them up in dungeons, or chaining them to oars: the example of such atrocious deeds rendered precept superfluous. But when shocking crimes are perpetrated under the banners of liberty, by the tools of despotism, it is then necessary to vindicate the purity of the one from the guilt of the other.

Before I left Paris, I heard a person who was filled with indignation at the recital of the horrors then committing, cry, "D - n liberty, I abhor its very name!"—The indignation was just; but

furely it was ill directed.

If he had been hearing a recital-of the cruelties which have been exercised on various occasions under the pretext of zeal for the Christian religion, whose effence is mercy and good-will to man, he might with equal justice and discernment have said, "D—n the Christian religion, I abhor its very name!"

This work, we are told, has been so much scharded by unexpected incidents, that the first volume only could be published at present. The second, we are assured, will appear soon. When it does, it shall meet with early notice; and the result of both volumes shall be laid before the public.

III. The Botanie Garden; a Poem, in Two Parts. Part I. ning the Economy of Vegetation. Part II. the Loves of the With Philosophical Nation 400. Il is. Boards. Johnson.

have with pleasure seen the completion (as we suppose,) if Dr. Darwin's plan, respecting this beautiful philosophic by the appearance of the present volume, which, though the first part, was, for reasons assigned in the presimi-vertisement, preceded by the publication of the second: the we gave some account in the laxath vol. of our Ke-2-337.

be thought that we have too long deferred our notice of the Botanic Garden now before us, we have only ret that this feeming delay has proceeded from causes we hope, will not occur in future. The procrastinative owever, has not been so great as may be imagined from spage; for, though the date be 1791, the book was not ed until a considerable part of the year 1792 had elapsed: is kept back, as we are informed, for the execution of the engravings.

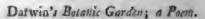
have before observed that the general design of this very r production is ' to inlist imagination under the banner nee, and to lead her votaries from the looser analogies, dress out the imagery of poetry, to the stricter ones which we have already given our general opinion, supported by extracts from Dr. D.'s performance. If, from so much of the poem as was then before the public, the ingenious author obtained no small portion of applause, he will suffer no diminution of it by this second proof of his abilities. The versification is still splendid, the subject still interesting. The present volume, indeed, seems possessed of all the poetic qualities by which the first part is distinguished; and nowhere discovers any abatement of that furor entheus which should animate every true son of the Muses.

Before we proceed to our intended extracts from this publication, it will not, we apprehend, be altogether improper to take force little notice of a circumstance that may not be wholly unworthy of the author's attention.

A question has lately been started, whether Dr. D.'s claim to originality, independently of poetic merit, in respect of his Loves of the Plants, can be irrefragably cstablished? It has been remarked, that M. de la Croix's beautiful little poem, the Connubia Florum, replete with simple and Virgilian Latinity, made its appearance in France more than fixty years ago. esteemed by the best judges a gem of the first water, this performance was in danger of falling into obscurity, and, possibly, had been totally loft, but for the good tafte of Sir Richard Clayton, who has given a new edition of M. de la Croix's poem, accompanied by his own notes, and pertinent observations: (see our account of this edition, Rev. for Jan. last, p. 22.) - Now it has been confidered as somewhat singular, that Dr. D. could pass over in silence a work which may, not improbably, have furnished him not only with the subject, but, in some degree, with the mode of treating it !- We must leave the ingenious Bard of Botany to notice these suggestions, if he chuses to give so much satisfaction to the candid inquirer. For us, we thall only remark that it is difficult to suppose that Dr. D. had never feen nor heard of La Croix's production. striking coincidences of imagination may be ranked among the " possibles "," but, surely, not among the probables .- We do not mean, in the leaft, to infinuate any thing like a charge of plagiarilm against the author of the Loves of the Plants. have no doubt that, if he pleases to note the circumstance, he can obviate every idea of his having taken freedoms with the Muse of M. de la Croix, not strictly allowable in a court of criticism.

We return now to the merits of the English poem; which we shall endeavour to illustrate by an extract or two:

[.] See Rev. Jan. p. 23.



e Address of the Genius of the Place to the BOTANIC

STAY YOUR RUDE STEPS! whose throbbing breath infold he legion-fiends of Glory, or of Gold ! ay! whose falle lips seductive simpers part, Thile Cunning neftles in the harlot-heart!or you no Dryads dress the roleate bower, or you no Nymphs their sparkling vales pour; nmark'd by you, light Graces swim the green, nd hovering Capids aim their shafts, unfeen. But Thou! whole mind the well-attemper'd ray f Tafte and Virtue lights with purer day; shole finer sense each lost vibration owns ith fweet responsive sympathy of tones; the fair flower expands it's lucid form o meet the fun, and shots it to the florm ;or thee my borders nurse the fragrant wreath, y fountains murmur, and my zephyts breathe; ow flides the painted faail, the gilded fly --nooths his fine down, to charm thy curious eye; n twinkling fins my pearly nations play, r win with finuous train their trackless way: y plumy pairs in gay embroidery drefs'd orm with ingenious bill the penfile nell, o Love's fiveet notes attone the liftening dell, nd Etho founds her fost symphonious shell. ee Aud 18 Likt me . P. .

Hence in dark heaps, ye gathering Clouds, remine!
Disperse, ye Lightnings! and, ye Mists, dissolve!: --Hither, emerging from yon orient skies,
BOTANNIC GODDESS! bend thy radiant eyes;
O'er these soft scenes assume thy gentle reign,
Pomona, Ceres, Flora in thy train;
O'er the still dawn thy placid smile effuse,
And with thy silver sandals print the dews;
In Noon's bright blaze thy vermil vest unfold,
And wave thy emerald banner star'd with gold."

The introduction of the Rosicrucian idea of Sylphs and Gnomes is well imagined, and adds considerable lustre to the poem •:

AND NOW THE GODDESS with attention sweet Turns to the GNOMES, that circle round her feet; Orb within orb approach the marshal'd trains, And pigmy legions darken all the plains; Thrice shout with silver tones the applauding bands, Bow, ere She speaks, and clap their fairy hands. So the tall grass, when noon-tide zephyr blows, Bends it's green blades in undulating rows; Wide o'er the fields the billowy tumult spreads, And russling harvests bow their golden heads.'

The poet's indignant animadversion on the well-known cruelties of the Spaniards, in the Western World, are just, spirited, and philanthropical:

"Heavens! on my fight what fanguine colours blaze! Spain's deathless shame! the crimes of modern days! When Avarice, shrouded in Religion's robe, Sail'd to the West, and slaughter'd half the globe; While superstition, stalking by his side, Mock'd the loud groans, and lap'd the bloody tide;

[•] We think, indeed, that the poet has very happily availed himself of the Rosscrucian doctrine of Gnomes, Sylphs, Nymphs, and Salamanders; which he supposes to have been originally the names of hieroglyphic sigures, representing the sour elements; or of Genii presiding over their operations; and which, therefore, may be considered as machinery well adapted to a poem of this kind. Thus, obedient to the Spring,

Pleased GNOMES, ascending from their earthy beds, Play round her graceful footsteps, as she treads; Gay SYLPHS attendant beat the fragrant air On winnowing wings, and wast her golden hair; Blue NYMPHS emerging leave their sparkling streams, And FIERY FORMS alight from orient beams; Musk'd in the rose's lap fresh dews they shed, Or breathe celestial lustres round her head'

Darwin's Botanic Garden; a Poem.

facred truths announc'd her frenzied dreams, d turn'd to night the fun's meridian beams .ar, oh. BRITANNIA! potent Queen of Illes, whom fair Art, and meek Religion fmiles, w Afric's coast thy craftier sons invade th murder, rapine, theft,-and call it Trade! The SLAVE, in chains, on supplicating knee, reads his wide arms, and lifts his eyes to Thee; th hunger pale, with wounds and toil oppress'd, ARE WE NOT BRETHREN?" forrow choaks the reft ;-Ark! bear to heaven upon thy azure flood eir innocent cries!-EARTH! cover not their blood!" cannot help noting that the last line of this quotas a syllable too much: innocent should never be reduced Tylable,-Were we inclined to the minutia of criticism, ld point out other peccadilloes, fuch as the frequent reof the uncharacteristic epithet fine, &c .- Sed ubi plura &c. the very abundant mass of entertaining and instructive

the very abundant mass of entertaining and instructive ions, by which this poem is illustrated, and the volume d, much praise is due. It will readily be conceived the plan as the learned writer has formed, will very y bring under his review the whole system of the unithe great phenomena of NATURE, the most curious ms of ART, the recent discoveries in Philosophy and

Godwin's Enquiry concerning Political Inflice.

and the primary planets having been thrown out from the fun, the moon from the earth , and all the satellites from their primary planets, in a femi-fluid state of lava, by the force of volcanos; which, in circumstances that can well be supposed to have existed at an early and remote period, may have been of sufficient force to project them to their present distances; and the velocity of the primary, which they would in course carry with them, might then occasion them to revolve in the same direction with it. Many circumstances are enumerated, which render this idea plaufible; and though it be not eafily reconcilable to the Newtonian laws of gravitation, it is certainly far less exceptionable than that of M. de Buston.

We forbear to multiply extracts from this work, as many of our readers have, doubtless, by this time, had the pleasure of perufing the original; and as, after all that has been faid, and already extracted, no detached passages can possibly give an adequate idea of a production so uncommonly diversified in its subjects.

Mr. Godwin's Enquiry concerning Political Justice. ART. XIV. [Art. concluded from page 445, Vol. X.]

THE title which this writer has given to his fixth book is-" Opinion considered as a Subject of Political Institution," and its heads of division are—The general effects of the political superintendence of opinion; of religious establishments; of the suppression of erroneous opinion, in religion and government; of tests; of oaths; of libels; of constitutions; of national education; of penfions and falaries; of the modes of

deciding a question on the part of the community.

Here again, as we proceed, we frequently find the author in direct opposition to many of the received opinions and common practices of mankind; and, however his readers may be led to doubt, the arguments which he adduces are frequently advanced with such appearance of cogency, that we cannot do better than bring forward such passages as our limits will admit, and earneftly recommend it, as a labour worthy of all inquiring minds, to examine the work itself; in order that they may confute these new doctrines, if in opposition to virtue and truth; or, if in agreement with them, that they may farther elucidate, strengthen, and expand the writer's principles. Oppoling the right of lociety to interfere with any man's speculative opinions, or to retain men in one common opinion

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[•] From that part of it which is now covered by the South Sea.

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licrates of authority, Mr. G. has the following among

guments:

II. p. 599. 'To these considerations it should be added, at is right under certain circumstances to-day, may by an alin those circumstances become wrong to-morrow. Right and are the refult of certain relations, and those relations are in the respective qualities of the beings to whom they belong. those qualities, and the relations become altogether different. atment that I am bound to bestow upon any one depends r capacity and his circumstances. Increase the bril, or vary nd, and I am bound to a different treatment. I am bound at to subject an individual to forcible restraint, because I am enough by reason alone to change his vicious propensities. ment I can render myfelf wife enough, I ought to confine o the latter mode. It is perhaps right to fuffer the negroes Vest-Indies to continue in flavery, till they can be gradually I for a flate of liberty. Universally it is a fundamental : in found political science, that a nation is best fitted for the ent of its civil government by being made to understand and he advantage of that amendment, and the moment it is fo od and defired it ought to be introduced. But, if there be h in these views, nothing can be more adverse to reason or int with the nature of man, than politive regulations tending to a certain mode of proceeding when its utility is gone. ve would be fill more completely aware of the pernicious

In the next chapter, which is a continuation of the fame fubject, we find this passage:

It is a mistake to suppose that speculative differences of opinion threaten materially to disturb the peace of society. It is only when they are enabled to arm themselves with the authority of government, to form parties in the state, and to struggle for that political ascendancy which is too frequently exerted in support of or in opposition to some. particular creed, that they become dangerous. Wherever government is wife enough to maintain an inflexible neutrality, thele jarring sects are always found to live together with sufficient barmony. very means that have been employed for the preservation of order, have been the only means that have led to its disturbance. The moment government resolves to admit of no regulations oppressive to either party, controverly finds its level, and appeals to argument and reason, instead of appealing to the sword or the stake. The moment. government descends to wear the badge of a seed, religious war is commenced, the world is difgraced with inexpiable broils and deluged with blood."

A few pages farther, Mr. G. thus reasons:

Another argument, though it has often been stated to the world, deserves to be mentioned in this place. Governments, no more than individual men, are infallible. The cabinets of princes and the parliaments of kingdoms, if there be any truth in confiderations already stated, are often less likely to be right in their conclutions than the theorist in his closet. But, dismissing the estimate of greater and less, it was to be presumed from the principles of human nature, and is found true in fact, that cabinets and parliaments are liable to vary from each other in opinion. What system of religion or government has not in its turn been patronized by national authority? The consequence therefore of admitting this authority is, not merely attributing to government a right to impose some, but any or all opinions upon the community. Are Paganism and Christianity, the religions of Mahomet, Zoroaster, and Confucius, are monarchy and ariflocracy in all their forms equally worthy to be perpetuated among mankind? Is it quite certain that the greatest of all human calamities is change? Must we never hope for any advance, any improvement? Have no revolution in government, and no reformation in religion been productive of more benefit than disadvantage? There is no species of reasoning in defence of the suppression of herefy which may not be brought back to this monitrous principle, that the knowledge of truth and the introduction of right principles of policy, are circumstances altogether indifferent to the welfare of mankind.

The same reasonings that are here employed against the forcible suppression of religious heresy, will be found equally valid with respect to political. The first circumstance that will not fail to suggest itself to every reslecting mind, is, What sort of constitution must that be which must never be examined? whose excellencies must be the constant topic of eulogium, but respecting which we must never permit purselves to enquire in what they consist? Can it be the in-

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of fociety to proferibe all investigation respecting the wisdom of ulations? Or must our debates be occupied with provisions of any convenience; and are we sorbid to ask, whether there of the something sundamentally wrong in the design of the re. Reason and good sease will not fail to augur ill of that of things which is too facred to be looked into; and to suffact there must be something essentially weak that thus shrinks are eye of curiosity. Add to which, that, however we may of the importance of religious disputes, nothing can less they be exposed to question than that the happiness of mankind thially connected with the improvement of political science—ity the duty of government is to be mild and equitable. Arts alone will not have the power, unassisted by the sense or the stion of oppression or treachery, to harry the people into ex
Excesses are never the offspring of reason, are never the offof misrepresentation only, but of power endeavouring to stifte and traverse the common sense of mankind.

and traverse the common sense of mankind.'

Godwin is an enemy to all prosecutions for libels, and att the subject with considerable attention. We must,

er, content ourselves, on this head, with two short quota-

II. p. 638. 'It would be a most tyrangical species of canp tell me, "You may write against the system we patronise,

ed you will write in an imbecil and ineffectual manner; you may and investigate as much as you please, provided, when you

Again-(p. 649.) 'The modes in which an innocent and a guilty man might repel an accusation against them might be expected to be opposite; but the law of sibel confounds them. He that was conscious of his rectitude, and undebauched by ill systems of government, would fay to his adversary, " Publish what you please against me, I have truth on my fide, and will confound your misrepresentations." His sense of fitness and justice would not permit him to fay, "I will have recourse to the only means that are congenial with guilt, I will compel you to be filent." A man, urged by indignation and impatience, may commence a profecution against his accuser; but he may be assured, the world, that is a disinterested spectator, feels no cordiality for his proceedings. The language of their sentiments upon such occasions is, "What! he dares not even let us hear what can be said against him."-How great must be the difference between him who answers me with a writ of summons or a challenge, and him who employs the sword and the shield of truth alone? He knows that force only is to be encountered with force, and allegation with allegation; and he fcorns to change places with the offender by being the first to break the peace. He does that which, were it not for the degenerate habits of fociety, would scarcely deserve the name of courage, dares to meet upon equal ground, with the facred armour of truth, an adversary who possesses only the perishable weapons of falshood. He calls upon his understanding; and does not despair of bassling the shallow pretences of calumny; he calls up his sirmness; and knows that a plain story, every word of which is marked with the emphasis of sincerity, will carry conviction to every hearer.'

In the chapter of conflitutions, is the following passage, which seems exceedingly repugnant to the present savourite system of law being the sole governor:

(Vol. II. p. 662.) 'A third consequence sufficiently memorable from the same principle, is the gradual extinction of law. A great affembly, collected from the different provinces of an extensive territory, and constituted the sole legislator of those by whom the territory is inhabited, immediately conjures up to itself an idea of the vast multifude of laws that are necessary for regulating the concerns of those whom it represents. A large city, impelled by the principles of commercial jealousy, is not slow to digest the volume of its by-laws and exclusive privileges. But the inhabitants of a small parish, living with some degree of that simplicity which best corresponds with the real nature and wants of a human being, would foon be led to suspect that general laws were unnecessary, and would adjudge the causes that came before them, not according to certain axioms previously written, but according to the circumstances and demand of each particular cause.—It was proper that this consequence should be mentioned in this place. The benefits that will arise from the abolition of law will come to be confidered in detail in the following book.'

Mr. Godwin reasons largely on this topic, and adduces arguments which merit consideration: but we can only point out the subject to inquirers.

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national education the author affirms-(p. 667.)

he injuries that result from a system of national education are, first place, that all public establishments include in them the permanence. They endeavour it may be to secure and to whatever of advantageous to society is already known, but orget that more remains to be known. If they realized the bitantial benefits at the time of their introduction, they must bly become less and less useful as they increased in duration, describe them as useless is a very seeble expression of their de-

They actively restrain the slights of mind, and fix it in the of exploded errors. It has commonly been observed of unies and extensive establishments for the purpose of education, e knowledge taught there, is a century behind the knowlege exists among the unshackled and unprejudiced members of the olitical community. The moment any scheme of proceeding permanent establishment, it becomes impressed as one of its terictic features with an aversion to change. Some violent ion may oblige its conductors to change an old fyllem of phifor a fyslem less obsolete; and they are then as pertinaciously. d to this second doctrine as they were to the first. Real inal improvement demands that mind flould as speedily as pofadvanced to the height of knowledge already existing among glitered members of the community, and flart from thence purful: of further acquifitions. But public education has alxpended its energies in the support of prejudice; it teaches its not the fertitude that shall bring every proposition to the

capable of this falutary exercise, to what valuable purpose can he be employed? Hence it appears that no vice can be more defirmative than that which teaches us to regard any judgment as final, and not open to review. - It has been alledged that " mere re fon may teach me not to strike my neighbour; but will never forbid my sending a fack of wool from England, or printing the French constitution in Spain." This objection leads to the true diffinction upon the subject. Ail real crimes are capable of being discerned without the teaching of law. All supposed crimes, not capable of being so discerned, are truly and unalterably innocent. It is true that my own understanding would never have told me that the exportation of wool was a vice; neither do I believe it is a vice now that a law has been made affirming it. It is a feeble and contemptible remedy for iniquitous punishments, to signify to mankind beforehand that you intend to inflict them. Nay, the remedy is worfe than the evil: destroy me if you please; but do not endeavour by a national education to destroy in my understanding the discernment of justice and injustice. The idea of such an education, or even perhaps of the necesfity of a written law, would never have occurred, if government and jurisprodence had never attempted the arbitrary conversion of innocence into guilt.'

In the chapter of pensions and salaries, to which Mr. Godwin is an enemy, he has a paragraph directly in point to a question at present contested: viz. "How far ought poverty to disqualify a man from voting at elections?"

(P. 681.) - If we have no falaries, for a still stronger reason we ought to have no pecuniary qualifications, or, in other words, no regulation requiring the possession of a certain property, as a condition to the right of electing, or the capacity of being elected. It is an uncommon strain of tyranny to call upon men to appoint for themselves a delegate, and at the same time forbid them to appoint exactly the man whom they may judge fittest for the office. Qualification in both kinds is the most flagrant injustice. It afferts the man to be of less vahee than his property. It furnishes to the candidate a new stimulus to the accumulation of wealth; and this passion, when once set in motion; is not easily allayed. It tells him, "Your intellectual and moral qualifications may be of the highest order; but you have not enough of the means of luxury and vice." To the non-elector it holds the most detestable language. It says, "You are poor; you are unfortunate; the institutions of society oblige you to be the perpetual witself of other men's superfluity: because you are sunk thus low, we will trample you yet lower; you shall not even be reckoned in the lists for a man, you shall be passed by as one of whom society makes no account, and whole welfare and moral existence she disdains to recollect.'

Book VII. treats of crimes and punishments, under the following heads—Limitations of the doctrine of punishment which result from the principles of morality; general disadvantages of coercion; of the application of coercion; of the application of coercion;

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; of coercion confidered as a temporary expedient; feale icion; of evidence; of law; of pardons.

foning at large on the pernicious effects of subflitting ment for instruction, and of imprisoning, securging, and g men to death, instead of enlightening and reforming

inderstandings, he thus speaks - (p. 698.) all human concerns morality is the most interesting. It is the and affociate of our transactions; there is no fituation in which be placed, no alternative that can be prefented to our choice, ing which duty is filent. "What is the flandard of morality ty?" Juffice. Not the arbitrary decrees that are in force in cular climate; but thate laws of eternal reason that are equally mry wherever man is to be found. "But the rules of justice ppear to us obscure, doubtful, and contradictory; what criteo criterious politole, the decilions of other men's wildom, and cifions of our own underflanding. Which of these is conformthe nature of man? Can we furrender our own understand-However we may flrain after implicit faith, will not confeience e of ourfolves whitper us, "This decree is equitable, and this is founded in minake?" Wild there not be in the minds of the es of tuperilition, a perpetual diffatisfaction, a defire to believe s dictated to them, accompanied with a want of that in which confills, evidence and connection? If we could furrender our landings, what fort of beings should we become? By the terms proposition we should not be rational; the nature of things

nels or unsubstantialness of the proposition. The direct tendency of coercion is to fet our understanding and our fears, our duty and our weakness at variance with each other. And how poor spirited a refuge does coercion afford? If what you require of me is duty, are there no reasons that will prove it to be such? If you understand more of eternal justice than I, and are thereby fitted to instruct me, cannot you convey the superior knowledge you possels from your understanding into mine? Will you jet your wit against one who is intell. Etually a child, and because you are better informed than I, assume, not to be my preceptor, but my tyrant? Am I not a rational being? Could I relift your arguments, if they were demonstrative? The odious fystem of coercion, first annihilates the understanding of the sub-ject, and then of him that adopts it. Dressed in the supine prerogatives of a master, he is excused from cultivating the faculties of a man. What would not man have been, long before this, if the proudest of us had no hopes but in argument, if he knew of no refort beyond, and if he were obliged to sharpen his faculties, and collect his powers, sthe only means of effecting his purpoles?'

Again, (p. 702.)-

We first vindicate political coercion, because the criminal has committed an offence against the community at large, and then pretend, while we bring him to the bar of the community, the offended party, that we bring him to the bar of an impartial umpire. Thus in England, the king by his attorney is the profecutor, and the king by his representative is the judge. How long shall such odieus inconsistencies impose on mankind? The pursuit commenced against the supposed offender is the possession, the armed force of the whole, drawn out in such portions as may be judged necessary; and when seven millions of menhave got one poor, unassisted individual in their power, they are then at leisure to torture or to kill him, and to make his agonies a spectacle to glut their serveity.—It is a poor argument of my superior reason, that I am unable to make justice be apprehended and selt in the most necessary cases, without the intervention of blows.

The argument against punishment, from the uncertainty of evidence, has frequently been repeated: but, as it has never yet been satisfactorily answered, the author has thought it a necessary part of his subject:—

(P. 724.) 'One more argument calculated to prove the absurdity of the attempt to proportion delinquency and suffering to each other may be derived from the imperfection of evidence. The veracity of witnesses will be to an impartial spectator a subject of continual doubt. Their competence, so far as relates to just observation and accuracy of understanding, will be still more doubtful. Absolute impartiality it would be absurd to expect from them. How much will every word and every action come distorted by the medium through which it is transmitted? The guilt of a man, to speak in the phraseology of law, may be proved either by direct or circumstantial evidence. I am sound near to the body of a man newly murdered. I come out of his apartment

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nent with a bloody knife in my hand or with blood upon my If, under these circumstances and unexpectedly charged nurder, I falter in my speech or betray perturbation id my coune, this is an additional proof. Who does not know that there a man in England, however blameless a life he may lead, who is that be faul not end it at the gailows?"

the fatisfaction of our readers, and in order to enable to judge, we have thus far made copious extracts from this ; which, be its principles what they may, treats on subjects oil interesting to the human race. Our limits will admit ore felections, and we must therefore fatisty ourselves with ing the heads of the eighth book, the subject of which is ty, and then conclude: they are as follow- Genuine of property delineated: benefits arifing from the genuine of property: of the objection to this lystem from the adle effects of luxury-from the allurements of floth-from spothibility of its being rendered permanent-from the inlity of its reflrictions-from the principle of its populaof the means of introducing the genuine fyftem of pro-

firous that the public should form their own opinions, on Is concerning which the world is fo much divided, we generally abitained from obtruding our fentiments on this In fact, the fingularity and novelty of many of its bes, belide thate which our limits would permit us to cite.

ART. XV. Antiquities of Ireland; by Edward Ledwich, LL.B.

[Article vontluded from p. 38.]

MR. LEDWICH offers, in his preface, some apology for the freedom with which he attacks the dangerous absurdities of superstition, or the oftentatious pretensions of minds inflated with a kind of patriotic pride and vanity, viz.

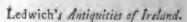
Some confidence in the cause I was engaged in, which appeared to me that of truth, has probably inspired a temerity of expression and of censure, which on any other subject had better been restrained. I confess I have taken little pains to correct this error, if it be such, because here truths were to be delivered in strong language; the numerous defenders of our bardic sictions and historical romances being ever on the watch, and ready to convert guarded expressions and modest distinct into strong symptoms of a weak cause. Nor have I been sparing of ridicule; for who in his senses would so egregiously waste his precious moments, as to enter into a serious discussion and constutation of monstrous assertions, and puerile absurdities?

The reader of this volume will not infrequently find occasion to recollect these remarks, which Mr. Ledwich, with due pro-

priety, offers in his own vindication.

The differtation, which falls next under our view, is emitled Specimen of the Natural History of Ireland, and of the Manners of she Irish in the twelfth Century. A great part of this essay is formed from the Topography of Ireland, written by Giraldus Cambrensis, or Girald Barry, a Welsh ecclesiastic; a man of genius, but of extreme vanity, which urged him to the pursuit of literature, and to fuch a superiority in its various departments, 25 would leave him without a rival. He visited Ireland twice: the second voyage was made A. D. 1185, at the request of Henry II. who exhorted him to examine the kingdom minutely, and to propose the best methods of securing and improving this newly-acquired country. Mr. Ledwich remarks, and not, we apprehend, without reason, that this work is perhaps as curious a literary monument as is any where to be found, displaying the natural history and philosophy of the age in which it was written.—Our author desires to appear neither the apologist nor the panegyrist of Girald, but he defends him from the heavy censure with which he has been loaded by other Irish antiquaries.

• Our manner of ploughing, (it is faid,) Cambrensis does not beforibe; it was certainly by the tail, which continues at present to be practised in some places. Mr. Barrington supposes it was imbraced for want of proper tackling: but the Irish had at all imes what they now use, thongs or straps of raw hides, which true them for traces. It is likely the custom was introduced by the Piets, for it prevails in the northern parts of Scotland.



In 1612, ten shillings were levied for every plough for in in Ullter, and the fum amounted in one year to 870l."is the obstinacy of man, or such the force of prejudice and t!-It appears also, that, at one period, the Irish, like their aren in the Highlands of North Britain, ' burned, and did thresh their corn. A woman, sitting down, took an handof corn in her left hand by the stalks, and set the ears on ; in her right flie held a flick, with which the beat off the n as foon as the hulk was burnt; fo that corn might be ed, winnowed, ground, and baked in an hour after it was ed.'-Rice is faid to have been fown in this country in 5 .- In 1590 they distilled a spirit from malt, and imitated ign liqueurs by adding feeds and spices .- The nectar of the i was composed of honey, wine, ginger, pepper, and cinon. This was called piment. The French puets of the century speak of it with rapture, as being most delicious. he differtation, on the music of the uncient Irish, as cultivated beir Bards, is written by William Beauford, A.M. It is nious, and abounds with information. In vocal mufic, acling to this account, the Irish appear to have excelled; " for le the Scotch, Welsh, English, and even the ecclesization ic kept nearly equal time in all their parts, the Irish, at in the 13th century, are faid to have used great latitude in

A the political conflictation and larges of the ancient Irifo: A s, but difficult subject, which he pursues with attention flidence. He properly observes, that an analogy in the al inflitutions of all rude nations is obvious. — The Brehen aturally pals under review, as far as any clear and deter-: notions can be formed concerning them. The high ity to which, according to some writers, they have preis, is here contested, and, with satisfactory probability, certainty, rejected. 'I think, (Mr. L. fays,) that as is the Irish began to regulate ecclesiastical affairs by political laws were at the same time established, for lergy and laity fat together on such occasions.'- It apthat the Brehons (judges) had contrived a technical lanor jargon, and contractions, in imitation of the Norman s. which they called the Peaunian or Phenian language, sed from Peann, a writing pen, because it was different he Brehonic oral law. From these and other aneedotes, may be relied on, we see the great improbability of ting the Brehon laws of the Seabright collection, and eater difficulty of rendering the Peannian commentary at proper glossaries and keys.'-Our limits will not allow give a more distinct account of this essay; which, says the • imperfect as it is, may excite farther attention. towers, which are numerous in Ireland, cannot fail of ing the attention of the antiquary. Several conjectures meen formed concerning them: our author, we are into believe, gives us the true account, when he proes on them as intended for sleeple-houses or belfries.

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reuments in favour of this supposition are almost decisive.

fometimes found in England: but the round towers* in Scotland, (as the Dun of Dornadilla, &c.) though probably the work of the Danes, appear to have been, fome at least, of a different kind and use.—The present judicious antiquary here offers many sensible and learned remarks; and he adds several strictures not very savourable, though somewhat jocular, to the editor of Collectanca de reb. Hib. +

Antiquities of New Grange, in the county of Meath. essay is introduced by some just and scientific remarks on the necessity of distinguishing between Celtic and Scythic or Gethic antiquities, if we would attain real and useful knowlege on the fubject. A neglect in this respect has occasioned great confusion. Let who will (it is faid,) be the leaders of the Scythic or Gothic tribe into Europe, or let the period of their arrival be what it may, the northern chronicles preferve abundant proofs of the introduction of a new superstition some years before the Incarnation.' This new northern superstition is applied to illustrate the stone monuments, &c. of New Grange; and it is on the whole inferred, that this was the work of femi-christian Oftmen in the ninth century.—In the course of these inquiries, Stone henge falls briefly under notice. Mr. Ledwich is of opinion, with Keysler, &c. that the Anglo-Saxons i were the anthors of that wonderful work.

The antient Irish dress is a curious topic, concerning which very little that is worthy of reliance has occurred to this accurate inquirer, antecedently to the 8th century. The most ancient garb of which we have any certain account, was barely a skin mantle, afterward changed for one of woollen, the rest of the body being naked. Cambrensis speaks of the Irish, in the 12th century, as but lightly clad in woollen garments, barbarously shaped, and for the most part black, because the sheep of the country are black.—On this passage it is remarked:

Anaturalists tell us, and with great truth, that the colours of asimals are often their greatest security from destruction. Thus the smaller evade the larger intects, and thus haves assuming a white colour in winter where show abounds, clude their sharp-sighted enemies. What nature thus kindly does for animals, restection does for man,

[•] See M. Rev. vol. lxii. p. 273. vol. lxiv. p. 114. New Series, vol. ii. p. 11.

⁺ Col. Vallancev.

The prefent name, Stone-henge, he traces up to Hengif's Stant supposing their crection to have been the work of the Saxon army under Prince Hengis, in commemoration of a signal victory gained by them over the Britons:—but "whence came the stones, and how were such immense masses conveyed to that spot?" are still questions that putzle every antiquary.

The Highlanders, formerly exercised in perpetual rapine, the better to conceal themselves, gave to their clothes a heath tincture. "The black clothing of the Irish was for the same purpose, being the solour of their bogs, their constant retreat."

To the mantle, they had now added the hood, formed into a conical cap, and together with it wore a jacket and trowfers.

Toward the conclusion of this essay, after several very senfible observations, it is added,

The suppression of monasteries, and the reformation of religion in the reigns of Henry VIII. and Elizabeth, had more powerful operation in reclaiming the Irish from barbarism and evil morals than the severest laws. The settlement of English colonists in different parts that the kingdom, their domestic and personal neatness, their active industry, supplying them with all the conveniencies and comforts of life, their rational religion, looking for happiness from their own eyertions, included of blindly and indolently reposing on the merits of imaginary rations, all conspired to awaken in the minds of the natives, a lively fense of their own wretchedness, groaning beneath the oppression of temporal and spiritual tyranny, from which however they were not completely emancipated, but by the abolition of the Brehon law, in the fixth year of the elder James.

The four succeeding differtations are devoted to antiquities of . the Irish church; a copious topic, reduced by our author into a moderate compass; treated with precision and perspicuity, as far as the subject will admit, and with that just abhorrence of . Superstition, and of delusion, priestly and political, which will be approved by intelligent and ingenuous minds .- We will not enter into an inquiry, whether Bishop Stillingsleet has made it mare than probable that St. Paul laid the foundation of A S Christian church in Britain;' nor how far an ancient MS. is worthy of confidence, which (as the faid bishop observes,) informs us, ' that St. John the evangelist first sang the Gallican effice, then the bleffed Polycarp his disciple, and after him Ire-, næus, bishop of Lyons.'-Passing this part of the treatise, we proceed to take some notice of Archbishop Usher, a name **silways** mentioned with regard. This industrious primate ex-... hanked great part of his life on the subject of ecclesiastical . " Affairs in Ireland; and, when he reviewed his compilation, " was obliged (fays this writer,) to anticipate a remark, which he knew every man of fense, letters, and penetration, must make, that it contained fome things frivolous, many doubtful, and not * few false.'-It is, however, to be remembered, that his intenwas not that of writing a history, but chiefly to collect A spaterials which might be employed by others to that purpose. who is free from human frailty and error ?-Although Usher "- bighly estimable on several accounts, yet there is too much reason to believe that he entertained some unjustifiable preju-REV. JUNE 1793. dices,

Ledwich's Antiquities of Ireland.

r that he was under some restraint, respecting establishand fuch authorities as frequently prevent fair discussion, ithful exhibition of the truth. When Dr. Ryves, after I investigation, expressed to Usher and Camden, in the 18, his doubts concerning the miracles recorded of St. neither the primate, nor his friend, appears, from thiscount, to have acted with all that impartiality and canr indeed that strict veracity, which are always to be deid might naturally have been expected. - Mr. Ledwich s strong arguments to prove that this famous apostle nd was an ideal personage, 'dubbed the patron-faint,' inth century, which was famous for reviving and inting Pagan practices with the Christian ritual.-It is ile to read without amazement the fraudulent arts which, rent departments, have been employed to cheat and gull d. The wickedness and impudence of those, who, by eans, triumphed over the ignorance and credulity of llow-creatures, might feem incredible: but fact supe affertion !- One of thefe lying and abandoned monks, g told that there were no materials to affift him for the patron-faint, which he was defired to write, replied,ould execute the work just as easily without them, and give them a most excellent legend, after the manner of nd of Thomas a Beckett," Christianity, or what has

The Roman Catholics of Ireland are a liberal and enlightened people, nor is it possible they will be longer amused with sistitious legends, or pay their adoration to ideal personages. The night of ignorance and superstition is passed, and with it the rustic and undiscerning piety of dark ages. A scriptural, rational, and manly religion is alone calculated for their present improvements in science and manners: this alone will establish an empire in the heart of every thinking and well disposed man, which no revolution will be able to shake.

The volume finishes with miscellaneous antiquities; by which may be understood matters of curiolity rather than of importance; unusual appendages to works of this nature, claiming the greater attention in the present case, as they serve to corroborate the idea pursued through this work of a northern colonization.—The Celtes, a rude race of hunters, have left behind them comparatively but few memorials; stone hatchets, and arrows headed with stone, are the chief; which were probably at once military weapons and domestic implements: -but how shall we account for Celts of brass, and other more curious metallic works, which Irish bogs have sometimes surnished? These have called forth many an enthusiast to celebrate with rapture the ancient honours of his country: - but the Firbolgs, and their fucceffors, well acquainted with metallurgy, supply an easy answer to the question, and lay these high and funciful pretentions in the dust .- Here Col. Vallancey receives some farther shafts from the quiver of ridicule and satire. -Mr. Webb's analytis of the history and antiquities of Ireland*, which appeared just before Mr. Ledwich had accomplished his work, also comes under a critical examination and censure in this ellay.

Thus have we endeavoured to give our readers a view of this performance, in which we find much to commend, and little to disapprove. If, in an instance or two, we might hesitate, or be inclined to object, our intention is overcome by the good sense, the learning, the judgment, the diligence, the accuracy, and the liberality, which pervade the whole. We consider the public as indebted to this author for so instructive and useful a production; which, we trust, will have its essect, in concurrence with other aids, toward the destruction of bigotry, superstition, and salse science, with all their idle sancies and childsh chimmeras; and thus contribute to the advancement of solid learning, rational religion, and virtue. The value of the volume is still greatly enhanced by the engravings, exact and beautiful, with which it is attended: they are about forty in

number.

[•] This work is now under review, and our account of it will feedily appear.

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NTHLY CATALOGUE,

For J U N E, 1793.

EAST and WEST INDIES.

Three Letters addressed to a Friend in India, by a Proprietor.
 cipally on the Subject of importing Bengal Sugars into England,
 pp. 88. 2s. 6d. Debrett. 1793.

writer maintains that the equalization of duties between the stand West Indies, is both unnecessary, and impolitic in the degree—unnecessary, because the East India Company can lugars to market with a profit subject to the present high as long as it can be for the general interest of the nation ey should do so; and impolitic, because the East India Comvould totally ruin the West India Islands, if they can imgars to any extent for which a demand can be found. An actifugars imported from Bengal is annexed, which shews a st 1270l. 10s. on an invoice of 4663l. 16s. This surely is a andsome advantage; it exceeds 27 per cent. and if the East Company gained as much upon their trade in general, they at this day have a very different statement of their affairs to to the public. He treats the current opinion, that Bengal is a of supplying all Europe with sugar, as a rash and chimerical and enters into a detail of circumstances to prove it to be so.

fuffered under their hands, and done them more mischief than good in one capacity or other.' This observation, if well founded, bodes very ill to their future prosperity; and corresponds but too closely with an authority not easily disputed. 'Mr. Anderson, the Accomptant to the Board of Controul, has lately declared to the public, that the India Company have not been able to carry on a trade with India to a profit for some years past.' Territorial sovereigns and traders appear to be too heterogeneous a mixture of characters, to unite in the same persons; it might be well, therefore, if this united company would separate again, so as that the princes and merchants might form distinct bodies; or that they would relinquish the trade altogether, and leave it to be managed in a more prudent manner by others. This writer would have the trade in sugar thrown open.

Art. 17. The Right in the West India Merchants to a double Monopoly of the Sugar Murket of Great Britain, and the Expediency of all Monopo-

lies, examined. 8vo. pp. 83. 2s. Debrett, &c.

When important questions engage the public attention, the variety of pamphlets exhibit the strength of arguments on each side; and in reading one, we frequently recollect reasons or facts stated in others, which either results or are resulted:—but as we mention each separately, it will scarcely be expected that we should compare all, and decide on the subject of them summarily. This would, in many cases, not only be deemed extra-judicial, but would prove a labour of too great magnitude. It may therefore suffice to observe, that the publication before us argues well, on liberal principles, against favouring monopolies of any kind, and, from a comparison between the circumstantes of the West India islands, and our Eastern possessions, relatively to Britain, with the natural and political claim of the inhabitants of this country to be supplied with commodities at the cheapest rates, shews the propriety of allowing a free competition between the Eastern and Western importers of sugar.

Art. 18. Heads of the Speech of the Right Hon. Henry Dundas, in the House of Commons, February 25, 1793, on stating the Affairs of the East India Company. 8vo. pp. 47. With an Appendix of

Estimates, &c. pp. 26. 3s. Debrett.

Parliamentary speeches being immediately retailed in the public papers, at least as to the leading points, the bare mention of their appearance in a separate form, and, as may be supposed, on better authority and with more attention to correctness, will in general be sufficient. It is already well known that the affairs of the Company were represented by the ministerial orator in the most savourable point of view.

Art. 19. A Letter to the Proprietors of East India Stock, on the present Crisis of the Company's Affairs. By John Prinsep, Esq. 8vo.

pp. 28. 13. Debrett.

The renewal of the Company's charter gives rife to many new confiderations founded on the new diffinction of a commercial company becoming territorial fovereigns. Here the supreme power, which confers existence on these commercial princes, steps in, and cries, "Halves!" Power, wherever it resides, is infatiable; and, where

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powers interfere, by discussing the matter among them, they it each other; when the feveral pretentions are adjusted, we uffructed by the event. The prefent age teems with grand We have no temptation to enter into the intricactes of II-freet politics.

LAW.

A Digest of the Laws of England, by the Right Hon. Sir Comyns, Knight, late Lord Chief Baron of his Majelly's of Exchequer. The third Edition, confiderably enlarged, ntinued down to the prefent Time, by Stewart Kyd, Barrister w of the Middle Temple, Eig. 8vo. 6 Vols. 31. 155. . Longman, &c. 1792. lithed in the year 1762; - in 1776, a continuation by a hand appeared; in 1781 a new edition, in which the contias alphabetically inferted, was found necessary. The proave thus given an unequivocal tellimony to the merit of the performance, by to frequently requiring editions of to large enfive a publication. - Mr. Kyd undertook a very laboricus on he engaged to bring the work down to the prefent time, wes confiderable praise for his resolution in the attempt, and liligence manifelted in the execution of feveral of its parts, however, forry to observe, that he has relaxed in his attenhe titles of artificament and merchants; which, on account of portance, called for an equal measure of investigation; and ntion might casily have been given by Mr. Kyd, as he had

guilty who differed in their fentiments on religious topics from the law makers, - and points out, in a strong and convincing manner, the gross impropriety of instituting a tribunal for the examination and punishment of opinion. - With the justness of the following passage we were much pleased: 'The ecclesiastical court has not only a cognizance, pro salute anime, over religious tenets, but likewise over immoralines unconnected with injuries. How is it that the zeal of this court for promoting man's falvation, has ever been more strongly displayed in extirpating error, rather than vice?' Mr. H. very severely suggests the natural cause for such conduct, when he adds, It appears as if pride of understanding was more predominant in the breast of an ecclesiastic, than the love of virtue."

Art. 23. Reports of Cases relating to the Duty and Office of a Justice of Peace; from Michaelmas Term 1791, to the End of Trinity Term By Michael Nolan, Efq. of Lincoln's Inn, Barrister at

8vo. 4s. Boards. Butterworth. 1793.

Mr. Nolan's preface informs us, that this volume of reports is defigned chiefly for the use of those gentiemen who attend the sessions. To them it may prove particularly serviceable, but to the general lawyer it will be unnecessary, as he will find these cases contained in the Term Reports of the same period.—This work is valuable on account of its fidelity and perspicuity.

Art. 24. The Practice of the Court of Great Sessions for the several Counties of Carmurthen, Pembroke, and Cardigan; the County of the Borough of Carmarthen; and the Town and County of Haverfordweft. By Richard Foley, Secondary of the Circuit. 8vo. pp. 144. 5s. Boards. Williams. 1792.

This volume contains an account of those particulars in which the practice of the Welsh Courts differs from that of Westminker-hall; and

will be useful to gentlemen on that circuit.

Art. 25. The Law of Costs. By John Hullock, of Gray's Inn. 8vo. pp. 626. 9s. Boards. Nicol. 1792.

Mr. Hullock has here shewn great industry in collecting all the cases, antient and modern, on the subject of costs, and in arranging them under their proper heads .-- It appears to us a fuller and more comprehensive treatise than any which has hitherto been published on this afeful title of the law.

rt. 26. Reports of Cases argued and determined in the High Court of Chancery, beginning in the Sittings after Hilary Term 29 Geo. III. A. D. 1789, and ending in the Sittings after Trinity Term 32 Geo III. A. D. 1792. By Francis Vesey, jun. Esq. of Lincoln's Inn, Barrister at Law. Folio. pp. 567. 11. 163. bound. Dilly. 1793.

These reports are contemporary with those given by Mr. Brown at the end of each term in which they are decided, and therefore will be found less necessary to the profession, on account of the same ground. being pre-occupied by another. - On their comparative merit we shall not decide.

Art. 27. A Charge to the Grand Jury of the Court Lect for the Manor of Manchofter, containing an Account of the internal Government

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Town; and of the Nature, Jurisdiction, and Duties of Courts n general. Delivered at the Michaelmas Court, Oct. 15, by William Roberts, Esq. of the Middle Temple, Barrisler

8vo. 1s. Butterworth. 1793. berts, to whom the public are much indebted for this very velligation of the constitution and power of courts leet, fuer. Geo. Lloyd as fleward of the court leet for the manor of After concilely enumerating the principal offences under the cognizance of this court, Mr. R. proceeds to espectable offices which relate to the police of Manchester, force the necessity of appointing persons who, from their and respectability, derive the best title to preside over the concludes with an admonition to reject all confiderations m party or religious prejudices. He observes that egislature, even in the midst of the zeal that produced the n and Test Acts, in the reign of Charles II. by the latter t is enacted, that all officers, civil and military, should rebacrament of the Lord's Supper according to the usage of of England-in the midft of that zeal, I fay, the Parlia-Red that this should not extend to Constables, Heador Tything-men, who may enter into these offices, and em, without that qualification. As these officers were then xcepted, it is not easy to conceive, that in this age you uenced by a spirit which the Legislature formally rejected, ime when the rage against non-conformitts role to enthumond Buildings, Saho, Solicitor for the Prisoner. 8vo. 2s. 6d.

Johnson. 1792.

The defence fet up by the prisoner was that he was no soldier, and not amenable to the jurisdiction of a court martial.—His judges, however, declared him to be a soldier; and sound him guilty of the offence laid to his charge. Mr. Martin complains heavily in the pamphlet before us, but with what soundation we cannot determine, that, in the course of the proceedings, the judges rejected proper and admitted improper evidence; and, throughout the business, manifested a great prejudice against the prisoner.—In last Trinity Term, a rule was granted by the Court of Common Pleas to shew cause why a promibition should not go to prevent the execution of the sentence passed against the prisoner; when the court, after the case had been ably argued, and fully discussed, discharged the rule, but previously determined the sollowing point, on which the motion for the prohibition rested; that the receiving pay as a foldier, subjected the receiver to military jurisdiction. An excellent report of this case is given in Mr.

H. Blackstone's Reports, vol. ii. p. 69.

Art. 29. A Treatise upon the Law and Proceedings in Cales of High Treason, &c. By a Barriller at Law. 8vo. pp. 154. 3s. 6d.

Boards. Butterworth. 1793.

This performance is ushered into the world by a declamatory and political preface, part of which we understand, but cannot approve: the remainder we cannot censure, because we do not comprehend it. Our readers may perhaps be more fortunate, and may possibly be able to explain satisfactorily to themselves the meaning of the following poetical rhapsody: All Europe is in arms, and the happiness of millions depends on the event. This is not a war of conquest, ambition, or aggrandizement; not a war of commerce, or for territorial equifition: but it is fingularly conspicuous for implicating the question, Whether the elements of civil society are to be disorganized, and reduced to a chaos? It is a war undertaken, because the balance of the world trembles on its beam.' Thus far is intelligible to us, but sow comes the flight which leaves us at a distance: 'Under these circumflances, the British nation awakes at the early call of danger: while visions of immortal glory, and dreams of victorious rapture frim before the warrior's cyes.' [We fincerely wish that they may not continue in the state of visions and dreams.] Like an eagle she mues her mighty youth, and soaring alost, kindles her undazzled eyes, at the full mid-day beam-whilft the inferior birds of prey, platted with rapine, and foul with blood, are scared at the fight, and by discordant and dreadful notes prognosticate their future fall.

To return, however, to the work, for it had nearly escaped us that we were reviewing a law essay, we must allow that the publication is well-timed, and that it will be useful to those gentlemen who have not already in their possession the larger treatises of the Pleas of the Crown,

from which it is chiefly compiled.

Art. 30. A Discourse on Laws, intended to shew that legal Institutions are necessary, not only to the Happiness, but to the very Existence of Man. By the Rev. A. Freston, A. M. 4to. pp. 22. 1s. Deighton. 1792.



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s is a plain and fenfible discourse from the following text. " For w was given by Moses, but grace and truth came by letes." John, it 17.—but the author has promised in his airle page than the public will discover to be performed in the work.

1. A Letter to the Right Hoz. William Windham, Member for wich, upon the prefent Election Judicature. 8vo. pp. 28.

Debrett. 1793.

author of this pamphlet complains, with warmth, and with of the extreme reluctance of the Members of the Haef of tons to be chosen on a Committee to try the election petitions force Mr. Grenville's all lopted; and he proposes another, which, in his opinion, is tree hose inconveniences which now prevail. He writes with judgfigirit, and candour.

32. Summary Hints for remodying various Defects in the Lower of off and Imprisonment for Debt. 8vo. pp. 29. 12. Ridging.

e great hardship of the laws of imprisonment for debt has been and justly a subject of complaint, that parliament have at length ed to the grievance, and a bill is now before the House of for the purpose of remedying the evil. The writer of the preamphlet confirms the old adage, that " it is easier to confire a amend;" for his statement of the many and complicated misattending the present system is correctly given, but his plan for rm appears to us superficial and inexpedient: we must, however, from this censure what is faid on the subject of superior.

Art. 35. A new Atridgment of Cases in Equity, and of such Cases at Law as relate to Equitable Subjects, from 1735, to the present Time. By Josiah Brown, Esq. Barrister at Law, and Editor of the Cases in Parliament. Vol. I. 4to. pp. 535. 11. 58. Boards. Pheney. 1793.

As no manufcript cases are admitted into this collection, the reader will find only such cases as have previously been reported by different authors. The abridgment is executed with accuracy and judgment, and will be useful to those who are unwilling to purchase the works from which it is compiled.

FRANCE.

Art. 36. Thoughts on the Death of the King of France. By William Fox. 8vo. 3d. Gurney.

The public commiseration and horror excited by the catastrophe of the king of France being by this time somewhat exhausted, Mr. W. Fox very properly calls on us to view the event, together with its probable consequences, in the light of reason and political wisdom. The absurdity of going to war with the French nation, on account of any internal violation of right, is forcibly argued; and it is even maintained that, in not interposing our friendly offices at the critical moment when the national assembly invited our interference, and hereby not preventing that invasion of France which was the immediate occasion of the horrors that have followed, we have been corselves in some fort accessary to the king's death. The author writes with his usual fagacity and freedom.

Art. 37. An Appendix to a Tour through Part of France. 8vo. 2s.

Cadell. 1793.

The work, to which this appendix relates, was reviewed in the 2d volume of our New Series, p. 138°.—The writer was, then, in common with every friend to human freedom and focial happiness, a well-wisher to the French Revolution, at the time of its laudable commencement: but, fince, in common with every friend to just government and public order, he has conceived fuch an abhorrence of many of the proceedings in France, that he is become a warm approver of the conduct of their opponents. For this change of fentiment he now affigns his motives and reasons; and this he has done in such a fair and manly discussion of the subject, as reslects honour on his principles and abilities, both as a politician and as a writer. It thews that candid turn of mind, ever open to conviction, which is one of the most honourable traits of the human character. The review here taken of the conduct of the National Convention, and of the parties which are now defolating France by their horrid measures, is replete with just and striking remarks and conclusions; which cannot fail of meeting with the approbation of every judicious and difpassionate reader.

An. 38. Elege Funèbre de Louis Seize, Roi de France et de Navarre : Pranonça à Londres, en Présence de plusieurs Compagnies respectables,

^{*} That work is now republished, with the addition of this Appendix, price 6s. boards.



MONTHLY CATALOGUE, Navigation, &c.

7 Mars, le 2, le 11, et le 23 Avril, 1793; par M. Lenner, Proar de Langue et de Belles Lettres Françoites. 840, pp. 68.

De Bolle, &c. sing on a former occasion borne our testimony to the merit of moir as a compiler [see our account of La Prangae de l'Oracer eis, Rev. Oct. 1700.] we now add our acknowlegement of his as an orator. Whatever may have been the truth concerning sject of this Eloge, which it must be the future estimated the im-I historian to determine, the author must be allowed the merit of g written a pathetic harangue.

NAVIGATION.

19. Infractions for Young Mariners, respecting the Managent of Ships at single Anchor. By Henry Taylor, of North elds. 810. pp. 30. 6d. Phillips. 1792.

18 there and useful manual contains several practical caution, I as the result of twenty years' experience in the coal and Baldes.—We have just seen a 2d edition of these valuable Infrato which is prefixed the following advertisement:

18 he Owners of about 200 sail of ships, resident in North Las and its environs, did at their Annual Associated Meetings. First Month 1792, come to the following resolution:

18 has the opinion of this Meeting, that many of the loss happen at sea, are owing to the causes mentioned in the Preso Henry Taylor's Instructions to Young Mariners.

18 Instructions we approve, and recommend to the attention

ery description of seamen: and that a number of said la-

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Who would believe it! thus circumstanced, this man not only allows himself the most scandalous declamations against the great and he rich, but has also quitted England, and is gone to Paris, where ie is become an affiliate of the Jacobins, and has enlisted himself under their standard.' We regret, with M. Pictet, the misconduct und ingratitude of Swiss governors, and the lamentable simplicity of their generous English employers: but we apprehend that sew persons, except the Genevese, have ever heard that such men as he describes, or even Geneva itself, had any considerable share in producing the French revolution, and the present crisis of Europe. It will not be easy for an impartial political critic to agree entirely with the sentiments of any sartizan, of any denomination: but we heartily approve the following observations, and think them seasonable at the present juncture:

I will not fay, that the attempt to subjugate a nation, whose inhabitants are all in arms, and ready to shed their blood for its defence, is a chimerical and impracticable enterprise! I shall not insist on the most proper time and the necessary precautions to be taken; on the almost invincible difficulty of preserving union, either between the different commanders of the armies, or between the cabinets from which they receive their orders: but I shall go much farther; I shall say, what, perhaps, your Excellency may consider as a paradox, that even with a certainty of triumphing over all difficulties, and of accomplishing the great purpose of the war, it would be a much wifer and safer policy, to keep the French civilly hemmed

within the limits of their own territory.

And indeed your Excellency will observe, that it cannot and enght not to be the object of the combined powers to gain new conquelts, which would expose them to endless differences: but let me submit it to your consideration, that the great interest which they ought to have in view, is, not merely to put a dop to this epidemical evil, but to give an instructive lesson to their own subjects, on the dangerous tendency of this new philosophy, and of the French max-For let us suppose the campaign of the Duke of Brunswick had happily terminated; that, after furmounting every obstacle, he had rendered himself matter of Paris, had given new laws, and effablished a sounder constitution; that the terror of his arms, and the dread of his vengeance, had forced the French to unconditional fubmission; yet, it cannot be doubted that this momentary impression, far from producing a lasting obedience, would have embittered the venom of discontent ever rankling at their heart; and is it not evident, that Europe would have been foon deluged with a multitude of books and pamphlets, tending to encourage the public fermentation, and to create new partizans to the fovereignty of the people, and to democratic principles? If, on the contrary, the allied powers had destined an army of 30,000 men to the desence of the Low Countries, if two armies of 60,000 men each had protected the Upper and Lower Rhine; if the King of Sardinia had been joined by thirty or forty thousand men, destined to cover the frontiers of Italy; if these several troops, cantoned at short distances, could, on the first orders, have immediately affembled; if, on the first appearance of disturbances,

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mers, they could have attacked the French in the open water a remark giorn war of polts, in which the latter will and a creat repetiently; is it not evident that fuch forces are cheshed every movement of the French, and kept them in all and 11 the allied courts had declared, at the fame that " they med up arms with no other view than to repel all angentions that tening France become a prey to a most der anarchy; though it had been their chief but unavailing with that unhappy singdem reflered to some form of government, t they and a choin to interfere in its internal affairs, and that ... 'A way ill' the public tranquillity was permanently reflored, their even tourself should occupy their attention; and that n they would look upon the declaration of war, as the despendence of a ration." Would not this conduct have evidently into be and generous? Would not every man, who knew all ts that have been practifed to effect a democracy, founded on level gary of the people, and who had penetration enough to are its confequences, have been thruck with the conviction, that French had been abandaned to themselves, they must food elt all the been is of their perilcus fituation.?

Picter, as we have from his work, it a man in very advanced —har his pe formance is written with the fire of youth; and, work of a long ret, is addinguished by the correctness of his

se, as well as by the animation of his flyle.

1. Ohis the we exist Figures of the Coal Duty upon the remote think prophet Coal of Street, tending to thew, that if it

probabilition on the afe of the article, than as a benefit to the role

e. [p. 11]. [The meanwealences to which the inhabitants are fubjected on eccount of this duty, are thus juilly stated by the same committee:
"The labour of the inhabitants of those parts where the fisheries would be best carried on, being employed for the greatest part of the fummer in providing fuel for themselves or others, it appears to your committee, that a remission of the daty on coal carried coasiwife, would enable the people to purchase coal at a moderate price : would remove one of the great obflacles to their collecting them-Elves together in towns and villager, and allow them to employ the fammer in profecuting the fiftheries, and other branches of industry."

[[bid.]

It did not fall within the object of their inquiry, to ascertain the amount of this tax in different parts of England, or in Wales, whose circumstances nearly resemble those of Scotland, and where I can have no doubt this tax will be equally unproductive and oppressive: but I truft, that when an investigation of this kind shall be attempted by an enlightened minister, he will perceive the very great detriment that accrues to the nation at large, from the operation of this crue!, impolitic, and unproductive tax; and fome others that operate in the fame manner; and the prodigious defalcation of revenue it has long occasioned: and will of course, at ouce, abolish it is all places, wherever situated, where it shall appear, from the features of the revenue afforded by it, that it has there openued as a bar to the industry of the people, and by that means has been a cause of general poverty among them. It is by attentions of this fort, to the real interests of the lower classes of the people intrufted to his care, that a minister should lay the fure foundations of a lasting fame; and not by aiming at that kind of temporary power which is to be obtained by augmenting the influence of rich and luxurious monopolizers, or by cherithing wealthy communities and corporations, which strive to repress the industry of diffant parts of the country, that they themselves may be the greater gainers by that superiority which they have already so decidedly ob-

In rectifying political irregularities, one alteration generally renders others necessary; accordingly, our author points out a corresponding regulation, which, accompanying the taking off this op-

Prefive coasting duty on coals, might render it featible:

'Those who inhabit the west coast of Britain have still farther reaon to complain that they have been treated with fingular feverity in regard to this article; for while the people of Ireland have been permitted to import as many coals as they pleafed, from Britain, at the low duty of 93d per ton, they themselves have been debarred from obtaining this necessary of life, unless under a duty of nearly street imes that amount. What was the policy which could induce the British parliament to establish such an unnatural distinction, it is hard to fay; but certainly it could not be a defire to augment the revenue of Britain; for by allowing the Irith rock falt from Liverpool.

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Tield the British are also prohibited from obtaining, together at on this low daty, the Irish are enabled to manufacture salt, easy them, as to have established a contraband trade in that the established of Britain, which no human power, and circumstances, ever can prevent to such an extent that the established thereby to the amount of Britain has been diminished thereby to the amount of A BIT THEFT THOUSAND FOUNDS a year; which the littles and distalts to substantiate, if ever he shall be properly upon for that purpose.

ore Dr. A. ticke to his immediate subject, he (rather needas we apprehend,) takes some pains to convince his readers as are most productive in the most flourishing parts of the s; in order to make a conclusion, sufficiently obvious, that tax produces the least, there it bears the hardest on the subsit. We may also add that his wide range of general politione long notes, if not wholly foreign to his immediate subray run the risk of not being altogether agreeable to some , who might otherwise be cordially disposed to assent to his ag on the coal duty.

 Mas's bij? Right; a folerm Appeal in the Name of Reliby the Rev. R. Nares, A. M. Chaplain to His Royal hnefs the Duke of York, late Student of Christ Church, Oxon, pp. 48. 1s. Stockdale. 1793.

Have a long account of Mr. Nares's former tract on the Prin-E Government, (see Rev. for October last, pages 135, &c.) 1, 25 we then observed, the author exhibited some proofs of

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Mr. Nares be grossly deceived by his own prejudices, he must see,and feeing, unless he be desirous to deceive his readers, he must acknowledge—that there is nothing here said by Mr. Mackintosh, but what is strictly applicable to Jesus Christ himself; who most unquestionably was a friend to humanity, " superior to the creed of any fect, and indifferent to the dogmas of any popular faith;" and there is as little doubt that, in the true meaning of the word, in the meaning in which it is used by Mr. Mackintosh, Jesus was also a philosopher, i.e. a lover of wisdom and truth. Will Mr. Nares

therefore come and tell us that Jesus was 'without religion?'

The only part of this pamphlet which wears the appearance of dispassionate argument, is the small portion of it in which Mr. Nares attempts to give an answer to the question, what is a right? 'to the primary intention of which word, or to the general nature of the thing, he says 'no one has sufficiently adverted' before himself. Whatever others may have done, we are of opinion that Mr. Nares himself has adverted to the meaning of this word but little, or to little purpose: for we cannot but consider him as very unfortunate in his explanation of it. According to him: "I have a right to do this," means the fame as, "it is right that I should do it." Now Mr. Nares himself, in page 27, observes, and all history will confirm the observation, that the 'superstition of former ages had heaped excessive gifts upon the clergy.' Here then arises a di-Mr. Nares, we trust, is too good a friend to the church and its possessions, to say that credulous and superstitious individuals in former times bad no right thus to dispose of their property; and yet we hope he is too good a friend to reason to say that credulity and superstition are right, or that our ancestors did right when they thus enormoully enriched the priest, at the expence of truth, reason, and virtue; and to the great detriment of their contemporaries, as well as of posterity. Many other cases might be put, to shew that it is one thing "to have a right to do this" and another "to be right in doing it." In a word, when we say that a man "has a right to do so and so," we speak politically. We consider only the relation subsking between man and man as focial Beings; and we inquire how far any one man may or may not control or interfere politically with the conduct of any other man. On the contrary, when we fay that "it is right to do this or that thing," we speak morally. We confider the relation between God and man, and we determine that a particular action is conformable to the laws of morality or to the will of God.

The above-mentioned slight attempt at argument excepted, the present pamphlet is all declamation. The promoters of the revolution in France, in all slages of it, are indiscriminately confounded with the worst of those who have lately gained an ascendancy in that country; and the friends of liberty in England are all included in the same class, and described as men whose wish it is to make the people of this illand 'not a great, a rich, a happy or a free people, but a wilful people.' They are faid to be 'evil counsellors who would wean the heart from God, and, in the place of God, would fet up the will of the people and make them worship it however corrupt

Rev. June, 1793.

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olish. What cause can be served, or what readers are to be iced, by such mistepresentations as these? fpecimen more of the little artifices to which Mr. Narca, in ner unworthy of himfelf, we are forry to fee it, has conducted fluop for the purpole of gaining profelytes, and we have He fays the prefent war is a new phenomenon, for bendes a necessary war for felf-descree, it is a quar of principle-a affert our right to do our duty and obey the will of God. a petty advantage is here taken of the ambiguity of words! ar of principle! A new phenomenon!" If Mr. Nares would ate that all former wars have been unprincipled wars, perhaps tralift would find few exceptions to urge against his afternon: he mean to fay that the prefent war is lets unprincipled than rmer, the same moralist would possibly have much to investigate he could arrive at any thing which would justify Mr. Nares in ig fuch a statement. The only obvious sense in which, as it apto us, it can be called a war of principle, is this, viz that it is undertaken to propagate pur own political principles in appointhe political principles of another nation - a war for the purpole tting our enemies till they embrace, or at least avow, tenets, and a form of government, which we chose to tell them is better em than any other. Now before it can be concluded that a undertaken on this ground, is more justifiable than any prez wars, which is what Mr. Nares would imply by calling it a thenomenon as a war of principle, it must be determined whehe cutting of our neighbour's throat, because he thinks dil.

Art. 44. Letter, Supplicatory and Expostulatory, to the Rt. Hon. W. Pitt, M. P. on the present War with France. 8vo. 6d. Ridgway.

Though this writer professes himself, and appears in sact to be, a loyal and saithful subject, he ventures to speak to the minister plain thath is a plain way. He calls on him to remember his obligations to the public, and to rescue his country from present burthens, and from impending calamities, by speedily terminating a war, the very saccess of which can only give a dangerous accession of strength to the despotic powers of Europe.

Arc. 45. A Sailor's Address to his Countrymen; or, an Adventure of Sain Trueman and his Messmate. 8vo. 3d. Murray. 1793.

An imitation of Jack Tar humour; tolerably hit off, in some refects,—though, here and there, Jack forgets his professional lings, and adopts the style of an orator in St. Stephen's chapel.—The estimator relates ar bow two honest English failors came along fide of an ale-house club of your Frenchised liberty rascals, and how they disputed with the levelling scoundrels till they quarrelled; when the brave Jacks gave 'em a broad-side of oak-stick arguments, and made 'em glad to sheer off:—all for the honour of Old England. This Tom Paine, and the Rights of Man,—for ever and ever! Huzza! Huzza! Huzza! Huzza! Huzza!

Art. 46. Better Prospects to the Merchants and Manusacurers of Great Britain. By William Playsair. Dedicated to the Members of the House of Commons. 8vo. pp. 40. 1s. 6d. Stockdale. 1793.

Mr. Playfair is very defirous to persuade the public that the shock, which credit has undergone, has not been owing to the present war; and yet he assigns, as the principal reasons of the present extraordinary embarrassment, that the French have drawn the gold out of this country with their paper, and that the general consusion of Europe has stopped the ordinary demand of our merchandize, and has rendered the people searful of suture events. If the general consusion be one cause of the failure of credit, and if the war has increased the consusion, it is pretty plain that the failure of credit has been in part at least owing to the war. The truth is, as Mr. P. elegants expresses it, "We are like in a fog at present:" but we do not expect that the speculations and calculations in this pamphlet will afford its much assistance in getting out of it.

Art. 47. A fort Sketch of the Revolution in 1688; with Observations on that Event. By Lælius. The Second Edition, much enlarged and illustrated. 8vo. pp. 48. 1793. No Bookseller,—not Price.

The writer of this pamphlet has the confidence to utter political herefies respecting the revolution in 1688, and to maintain, [with Mrs. Macanlay,] that the advantages gained by that event were less important thin is commonly supposed. The era of the revolution was,

[•] The first edition passed off in a few days without the usual formalities of public advertisements.

Monthly Catalogue, Political and Commercial.

heeffes, infinitely to be preferred to that which it immediately ded: but, from want of sufficient care to secure the rights of the to diminish the exorbitant power of the crown, and to settle ual and independent representation of the people, the combiss, in his opinion, left imperfect, and still requires correction approvement. The origin, progress, and infringement of Bricedom, through the whole period of the English history, are raced; and it is concluded, that, at the revolution, the preroof William and Mary was in every effectial circumstance as ive, when they ascended the throne, as that of the Stuarts had in any period of their reigns; or at least that they possessed in the power to exert themselves as arbitrarily. In fine, it is inced that the only effectual remedy for public grievances is reform in the constitution, as shall enable the nation at large to h unanimity, vigour, and perfeverance.

8. Dialogues on the Rights of Britons, between a Farmer, a or, and a Manufacturer. 3 Parts. Svo. pp. 78. 8d. gman. 1793.

honest fermer, whom, from his ingenuity in dressing out his ents to the best advantage, we might have mistaken for a or divine, here kindly undertakes to inform an ignorant and to correct the mistakes of a conceited manufacturer, on bjact of politics. The dialogues are levelled against the rs of Mr. Paine, which are represented as a mass of ignorance, od, and malice. The chief topics on which the farmer has a mass of ignorance and excellence of the British constitution:

MEDICAL and CHEMICAL.

Art. 50. An Historical Investigation into the first Appearance of the Venereal Disease in Europe. With Remarks on its particular Nature. To which are added Observations on the Non-necessity of Quarantines being observed against the Plague, by the Vessels arriving from the Mediterranean at British, French, and other Ports. By M. Sanchez, Dr. of the Faculty of Medicine at Paris. Translated from the French, by Joseph Skinner, Surgeon. 8vo. pp. 84. 2s. Johnson.

fon.
The principal arguments, which are advanced in this pamphlet, are

thus recapitulated by the author:

The venereal disease was known and examined in Italy, by Pintor and Belphini, under the character and title of a pestilential sever, in the month of March 1493; as is confirmed by the descriptions of the above Pintor, of Helius, Capréoli, and Fracastorius. This disease did not attack all alike in the parts of generation. It was of so pestilential a nature, that it killed in a very short space of time: and its external symptoms consisted most generally of pushules in the face, and alcers and scabs covering the whole body.

After Charles the Eighth had entered Italy with his army, during the winter of 1494, this disease was named, both by physicians and

historians, Morbus Gallicus.

In perusing the works of medical authors, we find, as far back as these traditions carry us, a mention of several symptoms of the venereal disease. We ought not, however, to conclude, from this circumdance, that such symptoms were positively so many effects produced, by the lues venerea, kown in Europe since the years 1493 and 1494.

If we can repose any confidence in the affertions of Pintor and Delphini, it is clear that the Spaniards communicated the venereal disease to the inhabitants of the American isses called Antilles, which include in their number St. Domingo. It also appears equally certain, from the relations of these authors, that the French soldiery were insected by it, when they traversed Italy as far as Naples, where they found this disease making devastations similar to those it caused among at themselves.

. The first American navigators, in their journals and relations, which are very numerous, make no mention of having observed this

difease amongst the nations of Indians they discovered.

Notwithstanding the ports of America, Africa, and the East Indies, have been constantly frequented by Europeans, the epidemic and endemic diseases of those countries have not been hitherto communicated to m. Ought we not thence to conclude, if any belief can be placed in history, that the venercal disease was not brought from America by the contagion or infection of the Spaniards; and that this opinion is attarly chimerical and destitute of foundation.

Respecting the use or abuse of quarantines, we get little information from M. Sanchez: we are surprised, however, after reading in one page that the venereal disease was carried to the American islands called Antilles, by the Spaniards, to find in the next, that eneither the plague, nor any other contagious disease can be brought by sea or

hand from Asia into Africa, or from America into Europe.'



MONTHLY CATALOGUE, Medical and Chemical.

T. A Treatife on the regular, tregular, aionic, and flying Gest, taining many new Reflections on its Caufes, and Management is various Circumstances and Constitutions. With the excelEffects of the Muriatic Acid in the Relief of that Disorder.
William Rowley, M.D. 8vo. pp. 98. 25.6d. Newbest.

shall pass over Dr. Rowley's 'new reflections,' in order to his account of the use of muriatic seid in relieving goury pains, te tells us, is the remedy which has been used with extraordinary

at Paris, and which was there kept a feeret.

or eight drachms of muriatic acid are to be added to each galwarm water; of which a sufficient quantity is to be used for rpose of making a bath for the seet and legs; when these are in the bath, the thighs and the top of the pan should be covered annel.

he bathing is to be continued longer or shorter, according to

lowing circumstances:

If the pulse become quicker, which may be easily afcertained sconds watch, an universal or partial perspiration may be ex-, and while this be moderate, it should be encouraged, during

iole time of bathing.

If the infentible perspiration should be augmented, and if we called fuder, or sweat, should iffue in larger or smaller drops surface of the skin, particularly on the sace, then the feet are to en out; for though a gentle perspiration will be certainly becevet profuse sweat will seave the patient more relaxed than would

If these particles should not transude, nor be dissolved or attracted in the bath, yet the legs and seet should be thoroughly who with a cloth and gently rubbed, that the pores may be as much liberated from obstruction as possible. Warm stockings of the fleety hostery should be then put on, and the patient should be conveyed to a warm bud; by which means a mitigation of pain, rest, and intensible perspiration are often procured. If these happy effects should not happen in the first few bathings; yet by a repetition, they frequently are obtained.

few bathings; yet by a repetition, they frequently are obtained.

If the bathing should be repeated in the morning, the patient should be put to bed for an hour or two, and after that, if disposed to rise and fit up, he should suffer the perspiration to subside, and the warmth to gradually cool: but all these circumstances should, in some measure, depend on the individual constitution of the patient, the nature of the gouty sit, the temperature of the air, the scasons of the year, &c. &c. all which may be considered by the medical practitioner, or determined by the good sense and experience of the afflicted patient.

During bathing, patients may use those drinks, that their stomachs have been most accustomed to; but moderation is recommended in all

calles.

In some instances of bathing, the baths, in a few days, have projuced a savourable criss; copious discharges of earthy particles have been deposited in the nrine, the sit has soon terminated, and this mostivity in instantiatory cases and robust constitutions. In the slying and atomic gout, case has been procured immediately, in some patients, in others hot; but, in general, the sits have been greatly abridged; by which the digestive and other powers necessary to life have not received such severe shocks, as when the disorder has been left to nature, or treated by any other method; the mind has been more tranquil, and the strength of patients has been restored sooner than otherwise is generally experienced.

The number of times the bath should be repeated depends on circumstances; the sooner the fit terminates, the sooner the baths may be omitted; but after the pains of the fit have ceased, the baths should

berepeated three or four times.

In the intervals of fits, the baths may be used once or twice in a manh; they will contribute to soften and remove callous substances the feet; open the pores without relaxing, and render the ex-

tremities less liable to attacks.

During the fits of the gout, when the parts have been bathed in the intervals, the fixin will make lefs refinance to the inflammation, the fwellings of the feet will be attended with lefs pain; there will be a freater certainty of the gout forming in the extremities, and lefs probability of its attacking the head, cheft, stomach, or other important internal parts, that commonly endanger the patient's life.

From this extract, our medical readers will fee the theory on which

Grounded the application of the acid.

NEGRO SLA, VERY.

Att. 524. Ast Essay on the Abolition, not only of the African Slave Trade,—but of Slavery in the British West Indias. 840. 15. Betket. 1792.



MONTHLY CATALOGUE, Patry, Dramatic, &c.

hould think it impossible that a traffic, which has been pronounoft and inhuman by the general voice of the serios, and which t of the legislature has already determined to abolish; should be entinued. Those who are intermited in the clave trade may, r, be more easily persuaded to defail from their disgraceful opto a measure dictated by the first principles of morality, if they perfuaded that the West India islands may be collivated more ageously than at present, by negroes bred from the present and gradually emancipated from their flate of flavery. This ter of the present pamphlet undertakes to prove. His opinious and he offers many fentible remarks to support them, -that if groes were humanely treated, and encouraged to expect a reom flavery after a certain time of faithful iervice, the importsflaves would be wholly unnecessary, and the whole system of would by degrees be annihilated not only without hazard, but reat advantage to the proprietor. The hints faggefled in this let are, in our apprehension, both judicious and humane.

3. Topin Turwy. With Anecdotes and Observations illustrates of leading Characters in the present Government of France. the Editor of Salmagundi*. Svo. pp. 56. 2s. 6d. sewed.

lerion. 1793.

lessed be the man (said Sancho) that invented sleep:"—we say, seed be the man who invented laughing;" for much are we inline the progress of our labours to this heart-lightening invents we be not altogether without our attachments, yet we can

And green breeches pur on; 'cis confeis'd

They were fall'n from their priftine perfection:

Then furvey us to dauntlefs and bare,

E to 154 Nor dispute the perfection we claim-

. . . . Who rival the primitive pair,

Untercompered with Breeches or thang."

These humourous and sprightly lines may serve as a specimen of the poetry, which merits praise on the whole, but to which the author has not been so uniformly attentive as to the wic and satire of which it is the vehicle. Some of the lines hobble, and of his rhimes he is now and then eareless. Abyfinian rhiming to onion is intolerable?

To justify the characters given of the leading members of the French government, the author has introduced many long notes: but, in reviewing this poem, it will not be expected that we should be such dull matter-of-sast men as to descend to examine authorities. There may possibly be some invention in the prose as well as caricature in the verse. Supposing it to be so; what does it prove?—only this, that the prose and the verse are good company for each other.

Art. 54. An Epifle, supposed to be written by Lord William Russil to Lord William Cavendish, from the Prison of Newgate, July 20, 1683, the Evening before the Execution of that virtuous and patriotic Nobleman, under the false Pretext of his being concerned in the pretended Rye-house Plot. 4to. 1s. 6d. Westley. 1793. A new impression of an old publication. We commended it to the

netice of our readers, in the year 1763, on its first appearance: see Rev. vol. xxix. p. 401. Its author was Mr. George Canning, an ingenious Templar. It is also inserted in Pearch's collection.

Art. 55. The Prifener; a Musical Romance, in Three Acts. Performed at the Theatre Royal, &c. October 1792. 8vo. 1s. Lowndes.

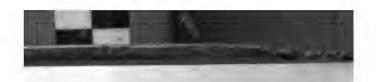
Something to see, and to hear, at the Theatre;—nothing to read, anywhere.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 56. Edinburgh Fugitive Pieces. By William Creech. 8vo. pp. 299. 3s. 6d. Boards. Creech, Edinburgh; Cadell, London. 1791.

This work contains a felection of papers from the Edinburgh Courant, Caledonian Mercury, and Edinburgh Gazette. The object of the ingenious editor is sufficiently explained in the following short preface:

There has hitherto been no afylum for fugitive pieces, or occafional effays, in Scotland, although many such have been made in England. It is thought that a collection might be furnished from this country, which would prove both entertaining and useful; and the editor, impressed with this idea, has ventured to give the plan a beginning. The periodical publications give a transient existence to many papers that often deserve a better fate; and a collection of the present nature, while it preserves, in part, a view of the manners, opinions, and taske of the times as they rise; may also serve to encourage



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write occasional papers, who are cities too indolens or un-

us to appear formally as authors : . . .

a editor, by this collection, means to preferre firsh producther in profe or verte, as may occasionally appear and deferve and which do not belong to any other regular collection; and, its with encouragement, it will be continued from time to time

tional volumes."

dy have we expressed our opinion of the atility of such col. They not only contribute to the preservation of pleasing and
ng papers which must otherwise soon perish, but they facilitate
lent's recourse to them as occasion may require. Fugitive
statistic this kind serve to mark the manners, the statists of thinking,
ome, fashions, prejudices, and, on the whole, the motal chases a people, during the period in which they appear, and are
e of ase in ascertaining the progress or decline of virtue, taste,
where. It will not be expected of us to give any extract from
ellaneous a work, where no paper can be a specimen of the
c conceive our duty to the editor and the public will be disby observing that the papers are selected with a view to the
on of virtue in the Northern part of our island, and that those
ingulature Beelzebub, on modern education, may be numbered
shole which have the most merit; they abound with much plea-

Scotticisms occur in this work, which will not be pleasant to this reader. They might have been easily corrected with an

pen.

The second second second

means to be admitted as a proof of general prosperity, for there the condition of a vast majority of the people will be found the reverse of prosperous. —Mankind, he farther observes, do not seem to have been insensible to the importance of moral cultivation, but they have calculated the means on wrong data, foreign to human nature.—Children, says he; 'have, for ages, been forced to learn precepts, creeds, and catechisms, which are unsuitable to their capacities, and come not home to their bosoms.' Many good books, he allows, have been composed for their use, but the writers, he says, have chiefly held sunfers and mission in view. The same good office, he concludes, "remains to be done for poor children, and, indeed, for the grown poor; multitudes of whom have never had a single moral idea put properly into their heads.'

The flory of Isaac lenkins, &c. is professedly intended as a specimen of compositions for this laudable purpose; and it is with pleasure that we learn, from the author's prefatory advertisement, that ' several thousand copies have been distributed among the poor, in different parts of England; and that ' they have found the performance at least intelligible, and interesting.' In truth we have found it highly interesting, both from the circumflances of the narrative, and from the welladapted, natural, and familiar, yet energetic and forcible turn of the language. A poor, distressed, and even perishing family, compleastly relieved from almost the extremity of disease and want, and a wretched father, who, by his fottishness and negligence, had been the primary cause of those distresses, reclaimed from the error of his ways, and reflored, on rational conviction, to sobriety and virtue, are the main objects which here claim the reader's attention;—and all this good is produced, without the least air of romance, or any appearance of fiction, by the wisdom and benevolence of one good man, who is characterized under the name of Mr. Langford, late an apothecary of Ludlow, in Shropshire.

On the whole, we confess that we have been so much struck by the exemplary history now before us of a drunkard reformed, that we cannot but earnestly advise those who can afford it, to distribute this little tract among the lower classes of people; and if, by these means, only one Itauc Jenkins in a thousand, (and many—many thousands of them, we sear, might be found!) be rescued from ruin, the good consequences would far exceed all that ever was effected by most of the Whole Duties, Family Instructors, Pious Breathings, Beauties of Holiness,—and Guides, and Helps, and Devous Manuals, &c. &c. &c. under which the presses have been groaning, from the time of their inven-

tion, to the time present.

THEOLOGY, POLEMICS, &c.

Art. 59. An Answer, on their own Principles, to direct and confequential Atheists. 8vo. pp. 124. 3s. Boards. Ridgway. 1791.

If, at the commencement of our perusal of this performance, we regretted that it remained so long neglected on the table, our regret diminished as we advanced. Laudable as the intention of the writer must have been, we can bestow no great praise on this work. He has tasted without drinking deep of the metaphysical spring; and those who are prosoundly read in the subjects discussed in this essay.

will

MONTHLY CATALOGUE, Theology, &c.

em the reasoning of this anonymous writer, in several places, racial as he pronounces that of Dr. Beattie to be, in he on the Nature and Immutability of Truth. We would not be ed to infinuate that he has attacked Dr. Beattie unfairly a on the y, we think that his firstures on the Common Sense Doctor I founded; and that it is absurd, in an argument addressed to is, to lay down the being of a God as a felf-evident principle. mmend our author for avoiding the cavils into which Dr. and others have been betrayed, in their opposition to Atheheories, and for being defirous of meeting Mr. Hume and mies of religion in the field of calm and temperate discussion: apprehend that few Theitis will entirely approve the manner th he sustains the combat. He undertakes to argue against di-nd consequential Atheists; that is, against those who deny the ce of Deity, and against those who, admitting the entity and f the attributes of the Supreme Being, nevertheless reject or do not allow them to be infinite; and yet our author himerts that " the Deity has only a general knowledge, and that if foreigen the depravity of human nature, his goodness would thibited the creation of man." With this, however, another positions seems to be a little at variance, when he says that al evil or pain to fuch a creature as man is absolutely necessary. it power and goodness infinite could not have excluded moral

author contends also for the freedom of human actions against ctrine of necessity: but he does not appear to discern the true of philosophical necessity; for the nower of adding or not

sees. If all acknowlege the divine benevolence, we do not perceive how the mere profession of it can be a distinguishing tenet. The distinction of the General Baptists from other Baptists, if not from some other Christian sects; must consist in the manner by which they evince their belief in the universality of divine love: this, however, Mr. E. has not sufficiently stated.

The address is ferious, and is not written with any party spirit, but with the evident design of promoting real virtue, manly piety,

and christian charity.

Art. 61. Letters to the Philosophers and Politicians of France, on the Subject of Religion. By Joseph Priestley, LL.D. F. R. S. &cc.

8vo. 1s. Johnson. 1793.

When we first took up this pamphlet, we could not help thinking of what would occur to the persons to whom it is addressed; and it strick us that, as soon as they read the title, they would seel disposed to reply in the words of the wise man "there is a time for every thing under the sun—a time to be silent and a time to speak,"—a time too (they may add,) to read sermons—but this is not with us the season. In fact, when a nation is occupied, at bome in forming a constitution and in re-organizing the whole institutions of civil society, and abroad in suffaining a war against all Europe, to call its attention to theological inquiries was certainly acting out of season, and could not in the present case have happened to Dr. Priessley, but from the weakness, incident to the greatest men, of magnifying their own objects of parsuit, and of imagining that they will have an equal importance in the eyes of the rest of the world, however they may be otherwise occupied.

We offer these remarks, because we think it was doing injury to the cause for which the Doctor pleads, to bring it forward at the time when this publication took place. The only point on which it was proper, in our apprehension, to have touched, was the entire separation of religion from the state; and even that it was scarcely necessary to notice, because the most culightened statesmen of France are well convinced of the propriety of this measure, and probably will foon * put it in execution: - but when we saw the author addreffing his readers on the Being and attributes of the Deity,—on the evidence of Jewish and Christian miracles,—and advising them to peruse his Institutes of Natural and Revealed Religion, 2 vol. 8vo. Letters to a Philosophical Unbeliever, History of the Corruptions of Christianity, 2 vol. 8vo. History of the Church, 2 vol. 8vo. and of Early Opinions concerning Jesus Christ, 4 vol. 8vo. &c. we could not but smile at the new labours which he proposes, at such a period, to the French Philosophers and Politicians. We fancy that we see the National Convention turned into an ecclesiastical council -Condorcet reading a report on the Athanasian creed, and the Committees of Constitution, War, Marine, and Finances, changed into Committees of Revelation, Heresy, Trinitarianism, and Materialism.

This article was composed above three months ago, but it had the missfortune to be thrust aside, among the croud of materials that pressed for admission, and have been obliged to wait.



MONTHLY CATALOGUE, Single Sermont.

have objected to the time in which Dr. Prioftley has cholen Irefs the French nation on the subject of religion: but tome is object also to the manner in which the address is written men who, as he himfelf owns, the very term religion will be give disgost, it was furely necessary to have written with the it care and precision-with the throngest force of argument, if f eloquence. Instead of this, we have here only a furall slet, hastily if not superficially written, containing little that is ind what, we think, is not well adapted to make the needful imn on men indisposed to attend to, or strongly prejudiced the subject. It has been a remark often made, and which is ten true, that the books in favour of religion were more fit to ce those who were already believers than to convert the incre-. We are forry to add this performance to the number. We ways happy to render justice to the eminent talents of De. ey, but we have more than once already had reason to regret his not more guarded in his application of them. He begins sodestly observing that a consciousness of his not possessing too discharge the duties of a member of the Convention inhim to decline that proffered honour, but that he gratefully sethat of CITIZERSHIP for himself and his fon; and, willing every thing in his power for a country that had so generously d him, he had addressed them on a subject, which he conceived of infinite importance to all mankind, though it appeared to be over-looked, or greatly misunderstood, by the French nation. immend the motive, but we blame the choice of the fubject.

Monthly Catalogue, Fest-Day Sermons, Ap. 19.

exaggerated, in a moment of irrefillible feelings and laudable refentment.

Art. 63. Religion, a Preservative against Barbarijm and Anarchy. From Jeremiah, xiii. 16. Preached at the Hague, February 13. 1793, on the Day of the General Fatt. By A. Maclaine, D. D.

4to. pp. 30. 1s. 6d. Cadell.

A vein of good fense and manly cloquence runs through this difcourse, which renders it not unworthy of the pen of Dr. Maclaine. The cause of religion is pleaded with a degree of energy which discovers a mind firongly tinctured with its spirit, and deeply sensible of its value both to individuals and to fociety. The present state of Hollard, with respect to religion and morals, is described in a manner which thews that the writer, though not a native of the country, has been an attentive observer of its character, and feels himself much insérested in its prosperity.

The depravity of manners which the Doctor deplores, he aferibes, in very strong terms, to the example of the French nation; which, for a century past, he afferts, has been the corrupter of Europe. He flyles the philosophy of France a petilential philosophy, and makes it the parent of three plagues, a spirit of irreligion, of popular commution, and of war.—Perhaps, if the pedigree of these plagues were fairly traced, it would be found that they are the legitimate offipring

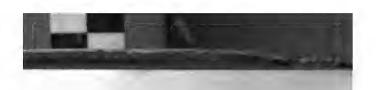
of very different parents, -- PRIESTCRAFT and DESPOTISM.

FAST SERMONS, APRIL 19.

Art. 64. Preached before the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, in the Abbey Church of St. Peter, Westminster. By Richard Lord Bishop

of Gleucester. 4to. 18. Walter.

An examination into the true state of our national character with refpect to religion and morality, and exhortations to reformation of manners, can never be unseasonable. This is commonly understood to be the peculiar business and duty of days of public fasting and humiliation; and as tar as the services of these days are confined to this object, they may be of public utility: - but such services have been frequently perverted to purpoles which are foreign, and even contrary, to this original defign; and have been formed into a part of the great machine of political influence, by which the public mind is to be fashioned to the exigencies of state. Too much of this kind of management we discover in many of the discourses which have been delivered on the late fast; and in none more than in that which, from the high distinction both of the preacher and the audience, claims our first at-If this prelate's exhortations to repentance be adapted to promote humiliation, his representation of the character of the French nation, and of the light in which we are to confider ourselves with respect to them, is calculated to raise very different seelings. Our enemies are held up as objects of contempt, indignation, and horror; as an infatuated and remorfeless people, destitute alike of wisdom and humanity, who have added to their various other enormities the impious folly of disclaiming the belief and acknowledgement of a God who over-rules the world: while we ourselves, with the rest of the confederate powers, are encouraged to entertain the prefumptuous imagination, that we are intrufted with the high commission of executing the



MONTHLY CATALOGUE, Fast-Day Sermons, Ap. 19.

of God on their devoted heads. It not this the language of it arrogance, and of religious bigotry, rather than of Christian y?

5. In the Chapel of the African for Female Orphans, before Prefident and Guardians of that Charity. By Septimus Hodfen, 3. Rector of Thrapton; Chaplain of the African, &c. 8vo. Codell.

ugh Mr. Hodfon declaims, in ftrong terms, against war in geand thinks it a circumstance which forms the most atrucious nacrime, and invokes the most awful national judgments, that ans " have not yet beat their fwords into ploughthares, and pears into pruning hooks;" yet he finds means to exculpate ntry in the instance of the present war, and to sarisfy himself e national conscience is in this case unpolluted. In proof, he alat we have been forced into the prefent conflict by the conduct enemies, who have invaded all private property, and have coml a war of plunder. Farther to foften the regret which Chifuit feel at taking up arms even on the greatest provocation, he nts the French as a fet of wretches, whose daring infidelity. ferocity, and frightful enormities, have even releafed us from igation of pity. In what part of that benevolent code, which s us to love our enemies, does this Christian preacher find the on, which releases him, in any case, from the obligation of com-

6. At the Church of St. Mary Magdalen, Taunton. By the John Gardiner. Curate to the above Church, and Radinent

MONTHER CATALOGUE, Faft-Day Sermons, Ap. 19. 233

righteousness. There may perhaps be much reason to question the truth of the position contained in the premises: but the conclusion, that religion is the only sure basis of private and public happiness, is incontrovertible; and this conclusion is strongly enforced at the close of this short, and neatly written, discourse.

Art. 68. An Estimate of the religious Character and State of Great BriLain. Preached at the Lock Chapel, and St. Mildred's Church,
Bread-street. By Thomas Scott, Chaplain of the Lock Hospital,
and Asternoon-Lecturer at the said Church. 8vo. 6d. Jordan.
The character of this sermon is sufficiently expressed in the title.
It chiefly consists of a long detail of impicties and immoralities, of
which the first article is 'daring insidelity and damnable heresy.'
Scarcely any thing political is introduced through the discourse, extents a prayer, in which all true friends to their country will heartily
loss, that the best methods may be taken to preserve peace, to promote
resigion at home, and to extend the same blessings to the nations
shorad.

Art. 69. Preached at Kidderminster. By the Rev. G. Butt, A. M. Chaplain in Ordinary to his Majesty, Vicar of Kidderminster, and Rector of Stanford in Worcestershire. 8vo. 6d. Downes. Mr. Butt is so perfectly satisfied with the present state of this country, that he challenges all the success of innovation to point out any general evil among us, which may not be traced to the misconduct of individuals, rather than to the constitution in church and state. In France, on the contrary, he sees 'all that is ravenous in rapacity; all that is insolent in vanity; all that is blundering in ignorance; all that is spiteful in envy; and all that is wicked in impiety, let loose spon the world in all their worst forms, with all their worst attempting to leave mankind without the controul of religion; the value of the Christian revelation; and the general propensity of the age toward impiety; are topics very properly introduced in this discourse, but hey are treated in a manner which discovers more command of language, than depth of thought, or regularity of method.

Art. 70. The Duties of Man. By W. Gilbank, M. A. Rector of St. Ethelburga, London; Reader and Afternoon Preacher at King-firect Chapel, St. James's, Westminster; and Chaplain to the Duke of Gloucester. 410. 1s. Robson.

Diversity of ranks in society is unquestionably necessary, not only to its prosperity, but to its very existence. It is therefore right, that those, who are destined to fill up the lower and more laborious stations, should be instructed in the necessity of subordination, and exhorted to a peaceable acquiescence in their lot. The general arguments upon this subject are very properly stated in this fermon; and several just observations are made, on the value of those public biessings which are enjoyed under the British government. Something, however, should have been added, on the other side,—on the duty of the rich to render the situation of the poor as comfortable as the condition of human nature will permit; the writer, moreover, should not have been so enamoured with the present state of things, as to discourage all at
Rev. Just 1793.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE, Fast Day Sermons, Ap. 19.

toward improvement, and to reprefent the friends of reform as o are aiming at confusion and rapine.

The Bleffings enjoyed by Englishmen, a Motive for their Rence. Preached in Greenwich Church. By Andrew Burnaby, Archdeacon of Leicester, and Vicar of Greenwich, 4to. Payne.

the form and conflitution of our government is eabibitive of a incomparable wisdom and excellence; that France presents of dreadful spectacle to the world, which must strike horror and into every, both present and future, generation; and that it be folly to risk substantial good for imaginary better; are among sing subjects of this discourse, in which we see nothing partiforcible in the reasoning, nor elegant in the expression.

2. At Fitzroy Chapel, by Robert Anthony Bromley, . Minister of that Chapel, and Rector of St. Mildred's in the try. 4to. 1s. Dilly.

ar as we are able to discover the drift of this writer's reasoning.

ears to be of opinion that no such thing as natural right can exit ate of society; and that where any form of government has extled and sanctioned by many ages, however absurd and missit may have proved, it must remain for ever. Whoever es to demur concerning the truth of this felf-evident axiom, h, nuthor's estimation, either unworthy of a serious reply, or incate understanding it. We shall not attempt to argue with a who treats with so much contempt any political principles

MONTELY CATALOGUE, Faft-Day Sermons, Ap. 19.

The fole object of this discourse is to prove that we ought to fight id to pray against the French. The preacher, in shewing that we tre not been the aggressors in the war, introduces a handsome coman unpleasant circumstance, but trusts that England will not feel it calamity. Has the writer eyes to see, or ears to hear?

In the Parish Church of Darlington. By the Rev. James. st~75. Topham. 8vo. 6d. Printed at Darlington In this inelegant and incorrect discourse, the preacher talks of the effenction of France learning us a very useful lesson; of a constitution. all outward purposes the envy of the world; and of sentiments which e thought it incumbent of him to deliver.

1 t. 76. Before the University of Oxford. By Ralph Churton, M. A. Fellow of Brazen Noie College, and Rector of Middleton

.Chency, Northamptonshire. 4to. 1s. White.

This fermon chiefly contains pious exhortations to personal repentnee and amendment. Being preached in the university of Oxford, high the writer, 4 after a residence of twenty-one years, is about to with sentiments of devout esteem and unalienable attachment, 154, among other heads of felf-examination, on several particulars wich more immediately concern academical life. He includes in is lift of college-vices, perhaps somewhat too rigorously, the waste f she academic evenings in social conversation, and the indulgence I fatire and caricature. As the best security against the mischies of narchy, an early habit of submission to discipline is recommended. There, is something singular in the manner in which the author acounts for the defeat of the combined armies in their first attack on France--- He who dwelleth in heaven, and beholdeth all the inhabitmats of the earth, has a right to judge not only of the merits of the tage, but of the demerits of the persons concerned in it, and often posithes, first of all, the wickedness of those, whom finally he profes; so employ as instruments of his vengeance against blacker guilt and more atrocious enormities.'—The preacher here seems to have loft fight of his text, " Suppose ye that these Galileans were sinners shove all the Galileans, because they suffered such things?"

At St. Margaret's, Lothbury. By Henry Whitfeld, D.D.

F.R.S. Rector of that Parish. 4to. 1s. Leigh and Sotheby. Several of the preachers on this day may not improperly be confilered as light auxiliaries to the grand corps of affociators; at least this is the case with Dr. Whitfeld, who strenuously afferts the justice and necessity of the present war, and exhorts his hearers to shun the assemblies of those who endeavour, either by their speeches or their writings, to make them distatished with the blessings which they enjoy mader our present happy constitution both in church and state; and to leave the management of state affairs to those whose knowlege and shilities are equal to the talk, instead of contriving successive systems of general reform, and busying themselves about other such matters of high concern. With the political part of the sermon, however, good practical advice is united on the subject of personal reformation.



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3. Dans la Chapelle Helwesique. Sur ser Paroles, " Si mons hes , wons le ferez pour wous-mêmes," Par M. Abauxit, P. 800. Richardson.

try temperate and prudent discourse, inculcating, on the naf the Helvetic states resident in this country, a zealous attacha religion, unanimity among themselves, and dutiful respect to vernment and laws under which they live. A copy of their to his Majesty on the 2.st of March 1793, is added; with his y's gracious answer.

 At Gosport By Richard Bingham, B. A. Minister of port Chapel, and late Fellow of New College, Oxford. 8vo. Cadell.

wretched character and state of the French nation, and the unled blessings enjoyed by Britons under our happy constitution, as usual on this occasion, the burthen of the song in the present se; and the preacher pursues the description through a long of dissued declamation, in which he spares no pains to exhibit strongest colours, the contrasted pictures. In one thing, howhe dissers from the generality of his brethren; instead of holdthe French as devoted objects of divine vengeance, and ouras honoured with the high privilege of executing it, he says, retend to imagine or affers, that we are sent to brandish the sword ruction, that we are directed to be the instruments of Almighty since to chastize the crimes of a wicked and effending nature, certainly be the height of arrogance and presumption." In

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the House of Commons, brought a charge against the injured author of this sermon, which he has neither the ability to maintain, nor the virtue to retract.

The sermon is an exhortation to pious confidence in the good providence of God, founded on Psalm xlvi. 1.

Art. 82. A Discourse on National Fasts, particularly in reference to that of April 19, 1793, on occasion of the present War. By W.

Fox. 8vo. 3d. Gurney.

Mr.W. Fox, already known to the world as a threwd observer and a down-right speaker, here gives his opinion very freely against the practice of national fasts. Such observances are, he thinks, contrary to the simplicity of the Christian religion, and suppose a combination of religion with national contests, which is totally repugnant to the Christian spirit. The modes of fasting, at present in use both in catholic and reformed churches, he treats as fair objects of ridicule; and the connection of fasting with war, he considers as nothing less than a kind of impiety. When we are required to pray for success to his Majesty's arms, he judges that it cannot be deemed presumptuous to ask, how they are to be employed, and what consequences are likely to result from their success?

Before we presume,' says he, ' to tell God the war is just and necessary, we ought to have satisfaction as to the specific nature of the war, and that such is its proper description. For, though it is alleged to be so by high authority, yet that authority is human, and consequently failible. Under such circumstances, the question assumes a more ferious form than even an affair of state. The king must now be confidered, not as being burled from his throne, but voluntarily descending from it, and leading his subjects into a presence where he and the meanest of them are on a perfect level. Under such circumflances, surely, we may be permitted to pause at the threshold, and respectfully ask for some evidence that the war will be really of that description which we are required to affirm it to be in the presence of Jebovab. If, on inquiry, it appears to us not so to be, it then becomes our duty, not only to decline affirming it ourselves, but to urge others to make a fimilar inquiry, that they may thereby avoid the guilt of afferting a falschood to God.'

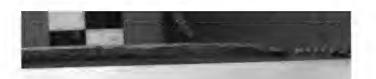
There is certainly some reason in all this, as well as in what is added concerning the necessity of resorming those crimes which are strictly and properly national. Of this subject the reader will hear more in

the next article.

Art. 83 Sins of Government, Sins of the Nation; or a Discourse for the Fail. By a Volunteer. 8vo. 1s. Johnson.

Though it be a political axiom, not to be controverted, that "the king can do no wrong," it will perhaps be generally admitted that there may be fins of government: but that these fins of government are also fins of the nation, and that these are the fins which ought to be the subject of humiliation on the national sait, was perhaps never so clearly made out, nor so energetically applied, as in this excellent discourse. The writer , no novice either in the school of

[·] Mrs. Barbauld, according to report.



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or that of literature, with a force of argument only equalled legance of language in which it is expressed, thus explains the idea on which the discourse is founded; aft as a nation, when, through the organ of the legislative which speaks the will of the nation, and by means of the re power which does the will of the nation, we enact laws, sances, make war or peace, dispose of the public money, or of those things which belong to us in our collective capacity, mparatively, sew individuals have any immediate share in ubic acts, we might be tempted to forget the responsibility staches to the nation at large with regard to them, did not the and piety of the governing powers, by thus calling us together y public emergency, remind us that they are all our own acts; t, for every violation of integrity, justice, or humanity in public

lly before the tribunal of Almighty God.

at this is the true and only rational interpretation of the following this day, is evident from hence, that we are never enjoined els the fins of other people; but our own fins. To take upon is the faults of others, favours of prefumption, rather than hu-

rs, it is incumbent upon every one of us, to humble himfelf

There would be an abfurd mockery in pretending to humble is before God for mildeeds which we have neither committed, e any power to amend. Those evils which we could not help, which we have had no share, are subjects of grief indeed, but remorfe. If an oppressive law, or a destructive war, were of ire of a volcano or a hurricane, proceeding from causes totally ident of our operations, all we should have to do, would be to

climate; and when we thank God for it, we rank it with the bleffings of the air and of the foil; whereas we ought to thank God for the wifden and wirter of living under a good government; for a good government is the first of national duties. It is indeed a happiness, and one which demands our most grateful thanks, to be born under one which spares us the trouble and hazard of changing it; but a people born under a good government, will probably not die under one, if they conceive of it as of an indolent and passive happiness, to be left for its preservation to fortunate conjunctures, and the floating and variable chances of incalculable events;—our second duty is to keep it good.'

A quiet subordination under lawful authority is inculcated on the fimple principle, that the will of the minority should ever yield to that of the majority; and attention to this principle is recommended particularly to public functionaries and to reformers. Of the energy and spirit with which national fins are here reproved, we shall give one

specimen:

Amongst our national faults, have we any instances of cruelty or eppression to repent of? Can we look round from sea to sea, and from east to west, and say, that our brother bath not aught against us? If such instances do not exist under our immediate eye, do they exist any where under our influence and jurifdiction? There are some, whose nerves, rather than whose principles, cannot bear crueltylike other nuisuances, they would not choose it in fight, but they can be well content to know it exists, and that they are indebted for it to the increase of their income, and the luxuries of their table: there not some darker-coloured children of the same family, over whom we assume a hard and unjust controul? And have not these our brethren aught against us? If we suspect they have, would it not become us anxiously to enquire into the truth; that we may deliver our fouls; but if we know it, and cannot help knowing it, if such enormities have been pressed and forced upon our notice, till they are become flat and stale in the public ear, from fulness and repetition, and satiety of proof; and if they are still fanctioned by our legislators, defended by our princes-deep indeed is the colour of our guilt. -And do we appoint fails, and make pretences to religion? Do we pretend to be shocked at the principles or the practices of neighbouring nations, and fart with affected horror at the name of Atheist? Are our consciences so tender, and our hearts so hard? Is it possible we should meet as a nation, and knowing ourselves to be guilty of these things, have the confidence to implore the bleffing of God upon our commerce and our colonies: preface with prayer our legislative meetinge, and then deliberate bow long we shall continue human sacrifices? Kather let us

Never pray more, abandon all remorfe.

Let us lay adde the grimace of hypocrify, ftand up for what we are, and boldly profefs, like the emperor of old, therevery thing is fweet from which money is extracted, and that we know better than to deprive ourfelves of a gain for the fake of a fellow-creature.

The violation of fincerity, justice, and good-will, in the conduct of this nation with regard to other states, is forcibly represented; the true features of war are painted with a degree of strength suffi-



CORRESPONDENCE.

o excite universal horror; the serious question, how viduals are really answerable for the guilt of the nation, is disand it is remarked, in conclusion, that every good man to his country, and to his own character, to lift up his voice a ruinous war, an unequal tax, or an edict for perfecution, oppose them temperately, but firmly, by all the means in his

either the strong reasoning, nor the impressive imagery, nor castic severity, of this discourse, can find access to the national re, its keeper (whoever he be,) has either guarded it with imable locks and bars, or has " leared it with a hot iron."

CORRESPONDENCE.

Dr. Tatham's polite letter is received, and is transmitted to entleman to whole consideration his work was more immediately ed.

From the tenor of Mr. Butterworth's note, dated June 11, it chended that he had not feen our notice of his former letter, 22 d of the Review for April. Not conceiving that they have in any infunderstood or misrepresented Mr. B.'s sentiments, the Resmust abide by their conclusion that it is unnecessary, and their tion that they have not room, to insert his letter; which, were se otherwise, they would print with the greatest readiness.

THE

MONTHLY REVIEW,

For JULY, 1793.

ART. I. Mr. Twining's Translation of Aristotle's Treatise on Poetry. [Article concluded from Vol. VII. p. 133.]

To Mr. Twining's valuable labours on Aristotle, our account of which we have long and very unwillingly suspended, we return with pleasure, and not without hopes of being able to gratify our learned readers, by laying before them a summary of his criticisms on the present state of the text in the treatise under our consideration. We have been induced, from reverence to Aristotle's invaluable work, and from respect to Mr. Twining's judgment, not to content ourselves with selections from the new readings, which he has adopted or proposed, but to give our readers an abridged representation of all that he has done toward reforming the text; referring them to his book for a fuller account of the reasons on which the corrections are founded.

Note 2. Και χρωμασι και σχημασι πολλα μιμουθαι τινες επτικαζούες, οί μεν δια συνηθείας, οί δε δια τεχνης, έθεροι δε δια της Φυνης.

I have followed the old and most authentic reading, δ, α της φωτης; which, though not unexceptionable, has been rejected, I think, with out sufficient reason.'— The only objection to the reading, dia tree Quence, is the improbability that Aristotle should, without any apparent reason, envelop the whole passage in embarrassment and ambiguity, by such a change of phrase: - DIA Quent; - which every reader is naturally led to join, not with the dative, χρωμασι και σχαμασι, but with AIA TEXTS, and AIA GUTTA-125: but the word puris, oppoling fuch a construction, has therefore, probably, been changed to aucon. - This objection has not been folidly answered, I think, either by Victorius, or any other commentator; nor can I think the change of phrase here by any means sufficiently accounted for, merely by assigning, as Victorius does, a pallage of Lucian, where the phrase itself, (to which no one objects,) occurs. [See Mr. Winstanley's note.] I am much inclined, therefore, to admit the reading faid by Madius to have been found in an ancient MS. and confirming the conjecture of Robortelli, - ilipo, de TH: ΦΩ H.. This would clearly mark the bounds of the parenthesis, Vol. xi.

the construction: xx: X50,4251, xx: 5X5,4251, words pupushed

Of the opposition. There is great reason to suspect this It is generally rendered, " Some dancers:" but Victorius, g. It is generally rendered, " Jeme dancers: Out victorius, aderstands it in that sense, says—durus samen serme; and prono authority for such a phrase. Heinfius proposed, of GOAAOI refler. The learned reader may, perhaps, agree with me, that as of moder would be preferable, as nearer to the text. It is not ile, that the degree of imitative skill here described was posby all dancers, or even by " the greater part" of them, &c. &c. TN- There is surely something desective in this passage: all this " or, making use of some kind of metre, AS IT HAS DONE, day." And this indeed feems the only fense that can be given words as they stand. But it appears to me that the original cany any fair and warranted elliptical construction, be made to say I am not able entirely to repel a suspicion-for I give it as g more - that the words, us xes too we, may belong to this fentence, whole may have originally food thus: -- all paymon put addedors THE YEST XPORTER THE RESPONDENT TO YESTONDER. MIXE FAP TOU IN OUDS EXO-&c. i.e. " For we bave bitherto no common appellation," &c. to 10. Our non xas moining meograpoetuleov. Mr. Twining the conjecture of Heinfius, who contended, that our non υθην προσαγορεύθεον should be read interrogatively, because nse which it gives to the passage appears to him to be g.—He also rejects the reading of Victorius—OY words

In a note to this passage, (p. 182.) Mr. Twining says, I agree persectly with Mr. Winstanley, that Casaubon's emendations are not necessary.' We were surprized at the remark, because, in his translation, Mr. T. has given the sense of Casaubon's correction: e.g. Aristotle says, (as the text stands,) that Sophocles and Aristophanes resemble each other in this, in the suppossary says its grammatical form too imports, the subject of the sentence:—but Mr. Twining translates it, as they imitate in the way of action, that is, dewise, agentes, agendo. In this sense dewise is, as Casaubon understands it, the agent of the sentence. We notice this apparent inconsistency, because we conceive the sense of this passage to be intimately connected with a leading principle in the Poetics.

Note XXI. Θηριών τε μορφάς των ΑΤΙΜΟΤΑΤΩΝ. The common reading is των ΑΓΡΙΩΤΑΤΩΝ. The sense and purport of the passage, says Mr. Twining, seem to require instances of mean, or disgusting, (αλιωθαίων,) rather than of terrible (αγριωθαίων) objects. The reading adopted by Mr. T. is also, as he observes, supported by the authority of MSS. and the arguments of Victorius.

Note XXXIX. Of AETOMENOI aving worder perpensions. The text is probably corrupt. Castelvetro conjectured, very ingeniously, OAITOI MEN OI oving morpha. But this Greek, oaigot of worder, is, I fear, what the critics call wormed to me. I will venture to mention another conjecture that has occurred to me. The learned reader will dispose of it as he pleases. It seems not improbable that Aristotle wrote Hod do oxympala tiva aving excount OIA AETOMEN, Of avin, &c. i.e. "when it had acquired a certain form, such as we say," alluding to what he had said of Homer's suggesting, by his Margites, the true form, or idea, of comedy."

Note XLII. Η μεν ουν Εποποιία τη Τραγωδία μεχρι μονου μίθου μέλ λογου μινιησις ειναι των σπουδαιών ηκολουθησεν.

Of the corruption of this passage I have no doubt. It has been proposed to eject the words, μεία λογου. My suspicion rather falls upon the word μεξευ; which, as it adds nothing but embarrassment to

e, (λογος, speech, or words, being a general term, and inmetre, as in ch. 1.) I have omitted '—' On the whole, it feems obable, that the passage originally stood in some such way as μω ουν Εποποία τη Τραγαδία μ.χει μονού ΤΟΥ μέλα λογού μιμποίΝ δαιών καθλώδηση.'

: XLIV. Εσίω ουν Τραγμόια μημησις πραξιως σπουδαιας ιας, μεγεθος εχουσης ήδυσμενώ λογη, χωρις έκασθου των ειδων εοριοις δρωίων, σε δί απαγγελίας, αλλά δι ελίου και φοβου τα την των τοιώων παθημάθων καθαρσιν.

Thus the word bearing will retain its proper fense, and the nitation of the drama, which Aristotle every where makes its ristic diffinction, as opposed to the Epic, will be, as we might a find it, in a formal and exact definition of tragedy, distinctly

χινι. Λεγω δε πόδυσμενον μεν λογον, τον εχονία ένθμου σύου, και μελος. Mr. Twining adopts Victorius's emen-

by common sense. He translates it thus: 'The manners are, whatever manisess the disposition of the speaker. There are speeches, therefore, which are without manners, or character, as not containing any thing by which the propensities or averfions of the person who delivers them can be known.' The common reading, which we have placed at the beginning of this note, is thus rendered by Mr. Harris: "Manners, or Character, is that which discovers what the determination [of a speaker] will be *, in matters where it is not yet manifest, whether he chuses to do a thing, or to avoid it."

* Now if this were true, (fays Mr. Twining,) I do not fee how there could be any $n\theta_{n\xi}$ in any play, after the first discovery of the speaker's character. In the Avare of Moliere, for instance, it is sufficiently manifest from the very first scene in which Harpagon appears, what his avarice will lead him to chuse or to avoid, in any circumstance of the drama. Is there, for that reason, no $n\theta_{n\xi}$, no sentiments that mark his character in any thing he says during the rest of the play?—Nay, more; according to this reading, there can be no $n\theta_{n\xi}$ at all in any part of that drama: for the appearance, or propensity of the Miser is completely known to every reader or spectator from the very title of the piece.

I know, indeed, that Le Bossu, and others, have given a meaning to this passage, by making Aristotle say, what he certainly does not say, viz. when it is not yet manifest "ex indicio dicentis," what the will, or choice of the speaker is. But if the common reading were right, we might surely expect to find the words is ois our is δηλοι, &c. subjoined in other places where he defines the ηθος. Yet we have nothing like it in cap.xv. initio; nor in the second book of his Releasing, where he says only, ηθος δ'αχουτιλογοι, ιι δοτοις δηλη η προπιερισις nor in other passages of the same work, relative to the same subject.

'Piccolomini's translation agrees with mine, and is expressed with his usual accuracy.—" Ma il costume nel parlar' é quello, il quale mostra suora, è apparir sà il volere, et l'elettion di chi parla. Peroche alcuni parlari si truovano, li quali non hanno costume; come ch' in essi non appaia, et non si manisesti, quello, che ò elegga, ò sugga, con la sua volontà, chi parla."

Note LXVII. Οδυσσειαν γαρ ποιων, ουκ εποιησεν απανία όσα αύω συνεβη:—ΑΛΑ' Α περι μιαν πραξιν, οίαν λεγομεν την Οδυσσειαν, ΣΥΝΕΣΤΗΣΑΝ. "Non cecinit omnia—fed quæ circa unam folam actionem, qualem Odyffeam dicimus, confliterunt." Victorius reads αλλα, and συνεσίητεν. Mr. Twining is inclined to follow Victorius's conjecture, pointing and translating it

ed with Mr. Harris's usual accuracy,—" what the determination of a speaker will be." 11,020,000, here, is not particular determination, but that habitual and general propensity, which is the cause of particular determinations."

απερι μιαν πραξιν, οιαν λεγομεν, την Οδυσσειαν συνεθιστινεμε την Ιλιαδα. "Sed circa unam adlionem, qualem diciffeam conflituit; pariterque Hiadem." "But he planned
my, as he also did his Iliad, upon an action, that is
he sense here explained." He acknowleges, however,
a, beside its support from MSS. answers better to the
α, which precedes: ουν εποιστιν απαλα όσα αυθα συνεβητρι μ. π. &c. but he thinks that, if αλλ' α be retained,
ge should stand thus: αλλ' α περι μιαν πραξιν, [fc. εσθι,]
εν την Οδυσσειαν, ΣΥΝΕΣΤΗΣΕΝ, which reading, on
e, he thought it right to follow.

LXVIII. Διαφερεσ San nan unser San το όλου. Mr. Twinnot think διαφερεσ San right. It is rendered by Goulliver fum reddatur; for which sense of the word Mr. T.
o authority, at least in Aristotle's writings. It should
disterpatur, distrahatur, &c. but he thinks that Aristotle
AΦΘΕΙΡΕΣΘΑΙ, spoiled, or destroyed. So in his Topics,
ΣΘΑΙ το ΟΛΟΝ, vol. 1. p. 258. B. ed. Duval.

IXXVI. Των δε άπλων μυθων και πεαξεων, αι επεισοδιωχειεισίαι. Mr. Twining conjectures that for άπλων we nd άπανίων.

LXXXV. Δυο μεν ουν του μυθου μερη ΠΕΡΙ ΤΑΥΤΑ εσί, και αναγνωρισις. " Circa bæc." About what? Vic-

he conjectures 'ANAOTHTOE. For his learned defence of this conjecture, we refer the reader to his notes.

Note CAX. Tas maga ta et avayuns anonou ou ou ou on ou seis the mondium. Some MSS. have ta masa tas et avayuns, &c. which Mr. Twining prefers as being, on the whole, the clearest.

It is also the reading of Victorius.

Note CXXII. Ai de [αναγνωρισεις] εκ περιπείειας, ώσπερ ή εν ποις Νιπίροις, βελίικς. Victorius understands εκ περιπείειας adverbially, "casu, fortuito, et quia ita cecidit." Heinsius, taking περιπεθεια in the dramatic sense, translates, "quæ e mutationibus in contrarium oriuntur." Mr. Twining allows this to be the obvious meaning of the expression, if not understood adverbially: but he thinks it cannot be Aristotle's meaning, because the discovery of the scar of Ulysses was not the consequence of any such περιπεθεία. Mr. T. though with some hesitation, conjectures εκ ΠΡΟΠΕΤΕΙΑΣ.

Note CXXIII. Δευθεραι δε, αι πεποιημεναι υπο του ποιητου, διο ουκ αθεχνοι. Mr. Twining reads διο αθεχνοι, without the negative.

Note CXXV. Εκεινος δε [δια σημειων,] ταυθα ουν αυθος λεγει, α

Note CXXV. Εκεινος δε [δια σημειων,] ταυΐα ουν αυΐος λεγει, α βουλείαι ο ποιηίης, αλλ' ουχ ο μυθος. Mr. T. allows to Dacier's conjecture, δια τεκμηριων, the praise of ingenuity, but has adopted δια σημειων on the authority of a MS. mentioned by Victorius.

Note CXXXV. 'Ο μη ὁρωνία τον θεαίην ελανθανεν. Dacier for θεαίην proposes ΠΟΙΗΤΗΝ. Castelvetro understood the passage nearly as Dacier does, but conjectured ὁ μη ὁρωνία, ΩΣ τον θεαίην, ελανθανεν ΑΝ. Mr. Twining reads the passage, ὁ μη ὁρωνία, 'ΩΣ, or ΩΣΠΕΡ, θεαίην, ελανθανεν, and translates, 'which escaped him [i. e. Carcinus] for want of seeing the action as a spectator.'

Note CXXXVII. Πιθανωλαλοι γας απο ΤΗΣ ΑΥΤΗΣ φυσεως οί

EN TRADEGIN EIGI.

'Nothing, (says Mr. Twining,) I think, can be more forced and improbable, than the sense given to the words απο της αεθης, φυσιως, by Victorius, and, after him, by Goulston and Dacier "eorum qui pari matura ingenioque præditi," &c.—De deux hommes, qui seront d'un sgal genie, &c. If the text be right, the only sense I see is that given by Heinsius:—" propter similitudinem ejustem natura;"—i. e. "from natural sympathy." But I am much disposed to suspect, that we should read, απ' ΑΥΤΗΣ ΤΗΣ φυσιω,—ab ipsa natura; ipsa natura comparatum est, ut, &c."

Note CXL. Τουτων γαρ οι μεν ευπλασίοι, οι δε εκσίαθικοι εισιν. So Mr. Twining reads, with a MS. of Victorius, instead of εξεθασθικοι.

Note CXLI. Tous τε λογους τους πεποιημενους—τους ΔΕ λογους, which, according to Victorius, has MS. authority, Mr. T. thinks would be a preferable reading.

5 4

Note

XLV. The yap Odus or east uangos i hopes rohr. Mr. Twi-

LII. To de relagion, clor, ale populdes, &c. Mr. T. on ity of the enumeration of these species, in chap. xxiv. he passage, to de retaglor, andore, clor, &c.

LV. Ev de ταις περιπεθειας και εν τοις απλοις πραγμασε ι, ών βουλοθαι, θαυμασίως. Τραγωον γαρ τουίο και φιλαν-Mr. I wining observes that the φιλανθρωπον, moral poetical justice, &c. was the very characteristic of fable, (διπλη συσίασις) and that the instances cited by seem to accord exactly with this idea. Instead, there-τοις ΑΠΛΟΙΣ πραγμασι, he conjectures εν τοις ΔΠΛΟΙΣ

LVIII. Τοις δε λοιποις τα διδομενα, &c. Mr. T. adopts Aure of Madius, ΑιΔΟΜΕΝΑ for ΔΙΔΟΜΕΝΑ, which rprifed to find had been unnoticed in all the subsequent aries which he had seen.

LXII. To yap an ein tou heyorlor eppon, ei parollo udea mai hovor; Mr. Twining proposes to read HAH for HAEA, sollo non sc. totaula—that is, eheeva, desta, &c. if they apdy so;—in themselves. The same conjecture, he says, red long ago to Castelvetro, but has not been noticed the commentators.

CLXXVIII. Cioν τα πολλα των Μεγαλίωλου. Dacier con-

endation were necessary, that is, if an enigma cannot be made the mere our series constant, he would prefer AAAON to KT-2N.

Note CCIII. E 1. General ter organism en to performiterally, the rd being put into the metre; i. e. as Victorius and others exin it, "taking care, that, in changing the words, you do it also metro."——"It appears to me, (fays Mr. I'wining,) t nothing tolerable can be made of the parale, en to perform this fense. If it might be taken, as some have taken adverbially, for perform to a moderate degree—all would be ll."—"I incline to think this was Aristotle's meaning, and the probably wrote en to METPION."

Note CCV. Φαγεδανα ή μου σαγκας εσθιει ποδος. We should d, probably, for the sake of the metre, either Φαγεδανα γ', it is corrected in the Oxford Euripides, or, which seems still ter, φαγεδανα δη, which is Du Pauw's emendation.

Note CCVI. Νυν δε μ' εων ολιγος τε και ουίδατες, και ακικός.

Three Medicean MSS. here give AE'AHE for annew; and so the Ald. and the version of Valla. This reading is also mentioned by stathius. Perhaps, then, and me might be the reading of Aristotle's by (of the Odyssey)—the precious copy and age of which we hear much; and he might mean to exemplify his proposed experimt of substituting common, for poetical, expression, only in the two I words; repeating the last and merely to complete his verse.'

Note CCX. $\Delta 10$, worth einouer non, an tailin Georesics ar Parish super, &c. Mr. Twining points the passage thus: $\Delta 10$, wo is ensure, non are tailin, &c. 'Hon an tailin, already,—even the first operation of his genius, the very choice of his subject, d formation of his plan.'

Note CCX1. Νυν δε, έν μερος απολαβων, επεισοδιοις κεχοπίαι ΑΤ-1N πολλοις.

"If Aristotle meant the other parts of the war, author must, surely, wrong."—" Heinfius conjectured ATTOT which is adopted and existed by De Bossu, II. 5. and 6.—But a learned friend has suggest to me a conjecture still more probable, that Aristotle wrote A MANN.

At, "EN μερος απολαβαν επικοδούς κεχεθαι ΑΛΛΩΝ [sc. μερος] πουλούς. Selecting one part only of the war, he has, from other parts, introed many episodes."

Note CCXVI. Περιτίη γαρ και ή διηγημαδική μιμησες των αλλων.

Τ. Twining corrects the passage thus: πεςιττή γαρ, και ΤΑΥ
π. ή διηγημαδική μιμησες των αλλων—" In this respect too."

Note CCXX. Marror o' evolutial every exorolia to avazoro.

1.—Victorius reads and points the passage differently: $\mu \omega \nu_{cv}$ 1. I wining, in his instantion, has followed the correction of Victorius: but, in his instantion, has followed the correction of Victorius: but, in his instantion, he observes that perhaps he would have done better, had a comitted the doubtful part of the passage—the words, to avazo-

επον. Ειπ δ' αν τουλο γε και καλα μελαφοραν. Και, πος τον σιδερου εργαζομενους · όθεν πεποιπλαι,

พุ่มเร หรอใยหมือบ หรอง. โรคอเอ.

ELII. A los realard a Discaperos Mr. Twining thinks that realassopisaussos must be allowed the praise both of independent probability. In his translation, however, he has rence to the authority of all the MSS. by following on reading.

celv. Ι σεδους δ'ειναι, όιες Ζευξις εγραφεν, αλλα και how. το γαρ παραδειγμα δει υπερεχειν. Batteux proposes gement of the passage: Αλλα και προς το βελίον το γαρ κ δει υπερεχειν, τοικίους δ'ειναι, οίες Ζευξις εγραφέν Μr. agrees with Mr. Winstanley in thinking that the induction of είναι, οίες Ζ. εγρ. should be transposed: but he be that any alteration, farther than mere transposites that any alteration, farther than mere transposites and the would read — Αλλα και ποος το ελίον, [sc.]

tellary. He would read - Αλλακαι ποος το εκίου, [ic. :] τοινίους δ'ειναι [ic. δει] όινς Ζευξίς εγραφεν' το γαρ παη υπερεχειν.

CLV. Ποςς ά Φασι τ'αλογα. Mr. Γ. points the passage ς à φασι, τα αλογα [(c. δει αναγειν:)] and so it is explaininstated by Castelvetro. I he sense of the passage he
to be "By general opinion we may excuse, not only
advasor, but even such things as are manifestly imind absurd."—As if Aristotle had written προς à φασι,
λογα.

CLVI. Τα δ' υπενανίια ως ειρημενα. Heinfius corrected travila ειρημενα. Mr. T. proposes, as an easier and more mendation, τα δ' ΥΠΕΝΑΝΤΙΩΣ ειρημενα.

ELVIII Cταν μη αναγκης ουσής μηθεν χρηση αι τω αλογω, επίδης τω Αιγειήου πουηριά, ώσπες εν Ορεσί: του Μενεν αου. sing, from the conjectures of Robortelli and Goulfton, he passage thus: ό σαν μη αναγκης ουσής μηθεν χρησή αι τω περ Ευριπιδης ΕΝ τω ΑΙΓΕΙ Η ΤΗ πονηριά, ώσπες εν τω

ν Μενελαου. CLXIV. Ως γας ουκ αισθανομενων, αν μη αύδος προσθη, πολ-



o μαλισία συμβανει το Savuasion: for the omission, he, will leave a clear and complete sense; and, moreover, a in which the only meaning, that can well be given to ords omitted, seems in fact to be implied. Δει μει αυτ το παις ποιείν το Savuasion μαλλον δειδιχείαι ενία εποπείνα,—λα όραν εις τον πρατιονία. " The surprising is necessary in trabut the epic poem admits of it to a greater degree,—bethere, the action is not seen "

the ecxxviii. Λέξει η και ηλυτίως.—Heinfius reads, KTμέξει, η και ηλωτίως. Victorius and other commentation δε κ ρια to be underflood. Mr. T. approves the correcf Heinfius, but thinks it might be improved by reading.

H KTPIA, n non yourlans.

te CCXXII. Outs alle textus has noutland. As the de tree no deth is aparelle in per year and a live, is de not a confidence. The text thands, it is put as if Artifolde had faid—" there no faults of the poetry itself: one, of the poetry itself, and her, incidental." Accordingly Ducier, Batteux, and almost e translators, neglect the word asses. Possibly it might, tally, have stood thus: outs address rexing, not notations as and E notations, &cc."

ne CCXXXII. Ει μιν γας προειλέδο μιμισαν θαι αδοιαμιώ. e MSS. instead of η μεν. - Cattelvetro and Heinfius supply

επισίων ουν. Ετη δ' αν τουλο γε και καλα μελαφοραν. Καις **Επικάς, τους τον** σιδκρον εργαζομένους · όθεν πεποιπλαι,

Κνημις νεοθευκθου κκοσιθεροιο.

Note CCLII. Also rala in Discaperson Mr. Twining thinks that infines's ralassopisacies must be allowed the praise both of infinity and probability. In his translation, however, he has a deference to the authority of all the MSS. by following

common reading.

Note CCLIV. Ι οιείους δειναι, διες Ζευξις εγραφεν, αλλα και το βελίων το γαρ παραδειγμα δει ύπερεχειν. Batteux proposes arrangement of the passage: Αλλα και προς το βελίων το γαρ μαδειγμα δει ύπερεχειν, τοιείους δ'ειναι, οίες Ζευξις εγραφεν Μr. vining agrees with Mr. Winstanley in thinking that the rads, τοιείους δ'ειναι, οίες Ζ. εγρ. should be transposed: but he not see that any alteration, farther than mere transposition is necessary. He would read — Αλλα και ποος το ελίων, [sc. μασγεν:] τοιείους δ'ειναι sc. δει] οίες Ζευξις εγραφεν το γαρ παγενα δει ύπερεχειν.

Blote CCLV. Προς α Φασι τ'αλογχ. Mr. Γ. points the passage s: προς α φασι, τα αλογα [sc. δει αναγειν:] and so it is explainant translated by Castelvetro. I he sense of the passage he meeives to be "By general opinion we may excuse, not only personal advasor, but even such things as are manifestly imparable and absurd."—As if Aristotle had written προς α φασι,

🗚 τα αλογα.

Note CCLVI. Τα δ' υπενανίια ως ειρημενα. Heinsius corrected

pobable emendation, τα δ' ΥΠΕΝΑΝΤΙΩΣ ειςημενα.

Note CCLVIII Cταν μη αναγκης ουσης μηθεν χρηση αι τω αλογω, του Ευριπιόης τω Αιγειήου πονηρια, ωσπερ εν Oped: του Mere αου. Ir. Fwining, from the conjectures of Robortelli and Goulfton, treeds the passage thus: ο αν μη αναγκης ουσης μηθεν χρησή αι τω Μογω, ωσπερ Ευριπιόης ΕΝ τω ΑΙΓΕΙ Η ΤΗ πονηρια, ωσπερ εν τω Δεσίη του Μενελαου.

Note CCLXIV. Ως γαρ ουκ αισθανομενων, αν μη αιδος προσθη, πολπ αισσιν κινουνδαι. Mr. Toup proposed to read—αν μη ΑΥΛΟΣ
ΤΟΣΗι, i. e. the imitators have recourse to every kind of mon, just as if the audience were not able to understand (or, to
them, "without the addition or accompaniment of a stute."
L. Twining expresses his deference for Mr. Toup, but contest that he does not see how any proper sense can be made of
passage so corrected.

whote CCLXIX. Kas diadoula. Some commentators render the third as if it were the simple particle adoula; others understand fring throughout. Mr. T. thinks that the only proper and

warrantable

warrantable sense of the word diaden is, to sing dissently: be therefore corrects it to adolla, and gives some plausible reasons for the change from acolla to diadolla.

Note CCLXXI. Και όλι ου μικρον μερος την μουσικήν και την οψε εχει, δι'ής τας ήδουας επισίανλαι, εναιγεσλαία. This is the common reading: but Mr. Twining confiders the reading of Victorian and of many MSS. as much better: και ΕΤΙ, ου μικρον μερος το μουσικήν και την οψιν εχει, δι' ης ΑΙ΄ ἩΔΟΝΑΙ ΣΥΝΙΣΤΑΝΤΑΙ εναργεσλαία.

"The fair and literal version of the words, (Mr. Twining says,) would be this: "By means of which, the pleasures are formed, composed, confirmed, or constituted, in the clearest and most visible manner." I give here what I apprehend to be the only fair sense of the verb, or consists. Say; but it seems to be, by no means, the proper word in this place, and probably is not the word which Aristotle wrote."

Mr. T. proposes HAPINTANTAL as a preserable term, and illustrates it by a passage from Ælian. He thinks that every stalla, the reading mentioned by Castelvetro, connects better with what follows, than evappeosala; he has, however, followed the latter, as the reading of all the manuscripts.

Note CCLXXII. Eila, και το εναργες εχει, και εν τη αναγγωριστη και επι των εξίγων. 'Nothing can be more evidently nonfentical (fays Mr.T.) than this diffinction—'' bath in the discoveries, and in the incidents;'' as if a discovery were not an incident.' He follows the reading of Madius (απαγνωσει) as undoubtedly right.

We have now, we believe, given an abstract of all Mr. Twining's remarks on the present state of the text of Aristote's Treatise on Poetry. For the reasons, with which he has supported his remarks, often with great ingenuity and learning, we refer to his book. We must, however, apprise the reader that Mr.T. has frequently adopted new and valuable readings in his translation, for which he has not accounted in his notes. We mention this circumstance, that the reader may not, in disputed passages, be contented with merely consulting the notes. The following are some that we have observed:

P. 69. So that Sophocles is, in one respect, an imitator of the same kind with Homer, as elevated characters are the objects of both; in another respect, of the same kind with Aristophanes, as both imitate in the way of action. The original of the latter words in italics is, oh μισουίαι δρωίας: i. e. as they imitate agents, or persons in action. They imitate persons in action is, imitantur eos, qui agunt, μιμουνίαι ΔΡΩΝΤΑΣ, the commo reading: They imitate in the way of action is, we apprehend imitantur ipst agentes, agendo, μιμουνίαι ΔΡΩΝΤΕΣ, which is Catauthon's reading.

P. 75. 'In the way, not of narration, but of action.' The common reading is ou di' επαγγελίας. Mr. Twining has transfered the reading of many MSS. ou di' ΑΠΑΓΓΕΛΙΑΣ.

. P. 80. For numberless events have happened to one man: **1.e.** τω γΈΝΙ συμβαίνει. The common reading is τω γενει σ.

P. 95. 'As Achilles is drawn by Agatho, and by Homer.' The common reading is οἰον τον Αχιλλεα αγαθον και Όμπρος. Ir.Twining has followed ΑΓΑΘΩΝ και Όμπρος:—but, in his additions and corrections, he retracts this reading, and prefers the common, αγαθον.

ne common, αγαθου.

P. 103. Their choral fongs have no more connection with heir subject, than with that of any other tragedy: ΟΥ μαλλου μυθου—εσλι. The common reading is μαλλου του μυθου—εσλι

rithout the negative.

P. 105. 'For G R, without A, is not a syllable:' i. e. και το Γ Ρ αντυ Α, ΟΥΚ ενίι συλλαβη. The common reading συλλαβη.

1b. • of such a nature, as, out of several sounds, each of them senificant, to form one significant sound: i.e. εκ πλεισνών μεν συμαίλικον δε, ποιειν πεφυκυια μιαν σημαίλικον φανην. The common reading is—σημαίλικην δε ποιειν πεφυκυια μιαν φωνην.

P. 106. Others relate to action or pronunciation.' i. e. ή δε, indx τα ὑποκρίωα. The common reading is ὑποκρίω. The new trading is introduced into the note, but without any mention

hat it differs from the common.

P. 128. 'This, however, may also be desended by metafor:' i. e. εικ δ' αν τοιδο και καία μεδαφοραν. The common

rading is sin d'av OY toulo.

· We cannot dismis Mr. Twining's book without observing hat his readers will seldom have to object to him-that he wades difficulties because he cannot explain them. We should tot do him justice, if we did not notice his great fairness in being fully and minutely the obscurities of his author, which he often at last obliged to relinquish to the evanescent hopes of letter manuscripts, or the more fortunate researches of future princs. We recommend to our readers, as proofs of our retark, and as specimens on which they may try their ingenuity, te following notes: 10. 29. 79. 138. 147. 150. 154. 166. 70. 191. 201. 223. 233. 242. 243. 251. 253. 255. 257. 271.:-but, for the elucidation of these and many other leulties, we wait impatiently for the new edition of Aristois treatife, with Mr. Tyrwhitt's corrected text, new Latin flation, and notes; with collations of the Venice, Paris, yden, and Wolfenbottle MSS, which has been printing at tford, and, as we understand, is soon to be published. ART.

. II. Cafus Principis; or, an Essay towards a History of the neipality of Scotland: with some Account of the Appanage and nours annexed to the second Prince of Scotland. By Host cleod, S.S.T.P. Professor of History in the University of algow. 4to. pp. 202. 10s. 6d. Boards. Nicol.

E object of the author of this publication will be bell explained by the account which he has given of it in his inaction:

The defign of the following pages is, to endeavour to throupon a part of our national hillory and confliction, that has but little attended to, and is, generally speaking, ill underflood there was formerly a Prince of Scotland, must be known to all that this Prince had a Principality, with certain powers, right, privileges, distinct from, and independent of, the estate of the 1, appears to be known but to few. And, still sewer are atted with the origin, nature, and extent of the estate, honour rivileges, of the Prince and Stewart of Scotland; or, with the n and repeated acts of the legislature, by which these were d on him, and inclinably annexed and secured to him.

A man may read all the writers on the history and law of Scotthat have been published to the world, without receiving much mation upon this subject; strange as that may seem, and imput as the subject must be admitted to be. The historians, intell us, and repeat it, one after another, that a certain Print created Duke of Rothesay; and, then, add, that this was the time the title of Duke was introduced into Scotland, and the

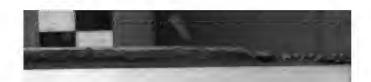
questioned, "whether his dukedom be a real dukedom, his earllom a real earldom, or whether these and his various other
ponours, be not merely nominal and mock honours, without
eal dignity or privilege: in short, whether the personage, who
has legally succeeded to the principality of Scotland, be a
hobleman, or, is entitled to the rank and rights of the lowest
hatent-baron who goes to parliament by his representative,"
has author conceived "that a concise and faithful state of the
Cose of the Prince, might be no unacceptable present to the
habita."

This work is divided into thirteen sections, the first of which reats of the Prince of Scotland till the death of Robert I.'-Lea. 2. 6 Of the Prince from the death of Robert I. to the eighth rear of Robert III.' Among many curious and interesting obbevations, the author informs us that, between the 16th of March and the 26th of October 1398, and in the eighth year of the reign * Robert III. the title of Duke was first introduced into Scotand conferred on David the eldest son of the reigning monarch.—About this period, John of Gaunt, who is styled chn Duke of Aquitaine and Lancaster, uncle to the King of England, and David, who is styled Earl of Carrick, eldest son if the King of Scotland, met for the purpose of settling the sorders, and terminating all matters in dispute. At a subsereent interview between the same parties, David is styled Duke Rothefay. 'This innovation, probably, proceeded on an idea, to which the interview of the two princes might naturally give rife, that it was unfuitable, and unworthy of the Scottish sational dignity, that the princes of England should enjoy a tide of nobility, which was esteemed to be of higher rank than that possessed by the hereditary Prince of Scotland.'

Sect. 3. Of the erection of the Principality of Scotland. Owing to the original deed of erection being lost, four different opinions have been maintained respecting the time of the spant. Sir George Mackenzie places it in the year 1371, in the beginning of the reign of Robert the IId.—Mr. Camden, tho received his information regarding Scotland from Sir Robert Sibbald, conceived the principality to have been first tredled in the year 1398. This is the opinion most generally believed on the subject. Sir James Balsour, and the historian Crawford, consider it as established in the year 1404;—and the North Chalmers, a late writer, differing from the above opitions, dates its origin from the year 1469.

In the three following sections, some account is given of the Dutchy of Cornwall, of the Dauphine of France, and of the Principality of Wales, with an idea that they might throw the light on the similar establishment in Scotland; it being

weil



Macleod's Cafus Principis.

known that the latter country borrowed many hints in rs of legislation and police both from France and England. lave not room to enumerate the subjects of the remaining us.

troughout this work, the author pays little regard to uthority of Buchanan as an hilforian; and, in the fol-

g palfage, he confures him with feverity:

he attempt alluded to above, to derogate from, or render ful, the appanage and birth-right honours of the Prince of ad, so expressly secured and execulty preserved to him by law, ade not by the King, the Parliament, or the People of Scotland, y the licentious pen of George Buchannan. George was a and a juffly celebrated one; and when he applied the dregs of e to the writing of history and politics, he allowed himfelf the therties of creation, exaggeration, and subilitation of one thing other, to which he had been so long accustomed in his poetical ofitions. Too indefent to examine, or too profligate to regard, ities, he allowed his fancy to guide his pen; and wrote wazabest suited the views of those by whom he was employed, and y paid for so doing. In his poetical history, amic'it a the pland affections of equal authenticity, Buchannan affores us, that Mary, previous to her marriage with Lord Darnley, beilowed a the dignity of Duke of Rothefay. Whether he faid to in profeof his open defign to rob the royal family of their legitimacy. rir honour, and of their legal herediary right; or, whether he it merely as a reproach to his bountiful benefactress, the Queen,

Edwards-Plutarchi de Educatione Libeterum Liber. 257

Duke of Rothesay, which was contested on a late memorable occasion, and which we conceive to have been the foundation of this essay, not requiring a twentieth part of the investigation which has been bestowed on it.—To that class of readers, however, who are peased with the antiquities of history, this work will give much satisfaction.

ART. III. Plutarchi de Educatione Liberorum Liber, Græce et Latine. Variorum Notas adjecit, suasque Animadversiones immiscuit, Thomas Edwards, LL.D. in usum studiosa Juventutis. 8vo. pp.190. of which 60 are Text. 3s. 6d. sewed. Cadell, &c.

feveral times published by itself, for the use of learners, as we conjecture, rather than for the purpose of displaying the editor's critical talents. The style, though not very elegant, is commonly easy; the maxims are plain and obvious; and the text seems to labour with sew signal corruptions*. Whether it be the genuine work of Plutarch, may admit of a doubt. To us, we must own, notwithstanding the praises that have been given to it by respectable writers, it appears much inferior to Plutarch in sorce of reasoning, in spirit of language, and in the learning of the allusions. Muretus † therefore has suspected it, and M. Wyttenbach ‡ has not scrupled to pronounce it spurious; which we think Dr. Edwards would have done right to mention. The sentiments of such men, whether they can be resuted or not, should never be suppressed.

Dr. Edwards acquaints us, in his preface, that he had meditated an edition of the whole second folio volume, which contains what are commonly called the Moral Works of Plutarch: but being disappointed in his hope of MS. collations, without which nothing worthy of the approbation of the learned could be expected, he desitted from his undertaking. Not to be wholly inactive, however, he published this treatise separately; to which he has added Xylander's vertion, and such observations of other editors, as he thought most conducive to the illustration of the author. In his own notes, he professes to have had two objects in view; first, to supply the desects of his predecessors; and

When we say this, we rather speak of the state to which the text might be brought, by a proper use of the helps which MSS. and tricisism would afford, than of the state in which Dr. Edwards has been did not be remain.

[†] Var. lect. xiv. 1.

² Biblioth. Crit. part iii. p. 89. where he promises to make good his sertion in his edition of Plutarch.



Edwards - Plutarchi de Educatione Liberorum Liber:

ly, to explain and defend the late M. Lennep's system of ites.

thrift thing that strikes us in the notes, is, that some are glish and some in Latin. This is a practice which we never fail to reprehend. When an editor produces any ations, which merit the notice of the learned, (and every ought to believe at least as much,) let him converse in immon language of the learned:-but when an author on a fobject of learning chiefly for the benefit of his rymen, let him compose wholly in his mother-tongue. Per-Dr. Edwards was induced to write his notes in this pieind patchwork manner, by the example of his father's critus *: -but it is a fault which we neither can nor will in any of the family. Fallit to incautem PIETAS tua! ither can we fay that we have no objections to the matter notes, from the two opposite circumstances of deficiency, edundancy. The first care of an editor ought to be to the text, fo as to preferve a due medium between rathness imidity. Dr. Edwards is certainly far enough removed the former of these imputations, but not equally so from her. He is contented with approving the readings of the , or easy and probable conjectures formed on their traces: his approbation being placed in the notes, young readers eldom take the trouble of recurring to it, till they are in

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milapply these laws, but without disowning their authority. No critic in his senses ever yet declared his resolution to put into the text what he at the time thought a wrong reading; and if a man, after peruling the works of his author perhaps ten times as often as the generality of readers,-after diligently comparing MSS. and editions,—after examining what others have written relative to him professedly or accidentally, -aftera constant perusal of other authors, with a special view to the elucidation of his own, -if, after all this, he must not be trusted with a discretionary power over the text, he never could bequalified to be an editor at all. Whatever editor (one, we mean, who aspires to that title,) republishes a book from an old edition, when the text might be improved from subsequent discoveries, while he hopes to shew his modesty and religion, only exposes his indolence, his ignorance, or his superstition. Dr. Edwards, after having, in his note on p. 3, approved an emendation by Casaubon, (บัทยเทย์ชายธุ for ยัทยเทย์ชายธุ) rejects it in his Addenda with this grave remark: 6 I grow daily more fensible of the great caution which is requisite in adopting emendations.' This emendation has at least the warrant of a MS. Now, if executives had been the common reading, which makes very good sense, and a MS. gave unantiles, the same remark, inverted, would be equally just. The truth is, fometimes two readings have such equal claims, that it is very difficult to give a decisive preference to either. In this case, what blame can an editor deservedly incur, who inserts one in the text, if he faithfully informs us of the other?

We shall give a specimen or two where, as we think, Dr. Edwards might safely have been bolder, without incurring the censure of rashness. In p. 8. καὶ γὰρ τὸ ἦθός ἐςι πολυχρόνιον. Here all the editors, from Xylander inclusively, saw that the addition of ϶θος was necessary. Dr. Edwards thus ratisfies their opinion: 'Other copies have ἦθος: both (so far) right, for I would recommend Καὶ γὰρ τὸ ἦθος ἐθος ἐκὶ πολυχρόνιον.' If it were too much to give the additional word a settled habitation in the text, it might have been allowed to creep in between brackets.

In p. 11. the words survey was ftill keep their place, to the utter extinction of the sense; while Dr. E. is contented with approving the emendation of Schneider and Westhusius

modrzea.

P. 15. Speaking of the injudicious conduct of parents, the methor fays, Ένιστε γαρ εἰδότες, αἰσθομένοις μαλλον αὐτοῖς τοῦτο λεγέντων, την ἐνίων τῶν παιδευτῶν ἀπειρίαν ἄμα καὶ μοχθηρίαν, ὅμως τώτως ἐπθρέπουσι τους παϊδας. Some MSS. have αἰσθομένων, which, as Dr. Edwards approves it, he might more pardonably have admitted into the text, than have left nonfense in its

Edwards-Plutarchi de Educatione Liberarum Liber.

One MS. gives distinued advan, whence M. Brunck with the flight addition of a letter, sidires, it a obsains—This, however, has not the good luck to please Dr. E. get Brunckii emendatio.' In spite of this censure, we must that we think the correction true, as far as it goes, but, as, it conveys not the whole truth. The right reading to be, 'Eviera via cidares aprei, it a obsains addaes route.

42. Καλτηροίξαλο might have been restored without scruple lengatalo, and a note might have been added containing account of the word: see Valckenzer on Herodotus,

64. Προρρίζους ελθρίβουσιν. The author is so seldom of indulging himself in the luxury of an elegant phrase, dr. E. ought to have justified him better than by quoting ider's note, with one example from the stupid play of as Patiens: for that example belongs of right to Euriwith whom the writer of that drama has made very free. to. Φρουεί manifestly signifies the same as μέγα φρουεί. quotes a passage from Henry Stephens's Thesaurus, in that learned man entertains some doubt of the integrity text. It would have been more useful to tyros, if he eferred them to Sylburgius, who, in his Appendix to lias, p. 927, produces some passages from his author

We have faid that we thought Dr. E. sometimes redundant. We shall reduce our censure to two parts. He frequently quotes Stephens, Hoogeveen, and Viger, to explain the most obvious words and phrases. Who would have thought that a note translated by Girard, from the Scholiast on Aristophanes, was necessary to explain the meaning of the word sycophant? We are sensible, however, that a great latitude must be allowed in this respect; since that which is clear to one, may be obscure to another. Some may therefore perhaps be so far from thinking this minuteness superstuous, that they may even com-

mend it as necessary.

We must, however, confess that we are totally unable to find out the necessity or propriety of illustrating Lennep's system of tenses in a book designed to teach Greek to the learners of that language. Mere learners cannot be edified by being told what a prodigious number of Greek roots formerly grew in the land, when they are informed at the same time that none are now remaining. Some of the groffest of the mistakes, which prevail concerning the tenfes in our common grammars, might occasionally be rectified: but to proceed any farther ought to be referved for those who have made the philosophy of language their study. It can only perplex young understandings, who ought to know that a thing is, before they inquire why it is fo. Such remarks, therefore, ought very sparingly to be introduced in notes. If a critic should chuse to favour the public with a description of this nature, let it be unmix'd with baser matter: or if he has not materials enough to make a justum volumen, he might throw them into the form of an appendix, by which means the connection of the parts would be better preserved. reader, without caring much about Plutarch, or at all about the notes, should nevertheless be very curious to understand Lennep's hypothesis of the Greek tenses illustrated by Dr. Edwards :he would have to toil through a hundred and thirty pages of miscellaneous matter, and to pick up the scattered fragments of which he was in search.

Dr. Edwards will perhaps ask, What great harm is in all this, if the remarks themselves be true, curious, and useful? Let us then examine some of the principles which he has laid down on the subject. The only genuine tenses are said to be six in each voice, i.e.

The { present, future, persect, impersect, aorist, plupersect. }

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the active voice, therefore, these tenses are thus supposed formed:

τυπίω, τυπίσυ, τύπεα. ετυπεω, έτύπεσα, έτύπεαν. the passive, thus;

τιπιομαι, τυπέσουαι, τυπέαμαι.

έτυπεύμην, έτυπεσάμην, έτυπεάμην.

for the reit of the tenses, the aprist and second suture, the aprists and sutures commonly called passive, he es of them in this manner. The suture second active is a xistence; the second aprist active is an impersed from an te radix; the aprists commonly called passives are intenses from verbs in m, whose present tenses have abscended, he suture passives are sutures from the same antiquated

The paulo-post-futurum is only the future passive with

aplication.

e shall take the liberty to add our fentiments on this inus hypothesis, as far as we agree with it.

if, we allow that the second suture active has no existence, was also the affertion of Mr. Dawes. Secondly, we that the middle voice (if by the middle voice be meant of inflections differing by a native and inherent force from tive and passive voices,) never did nor can exist, and that

Edwards-Plutarchi de Educatione Libererum Liber. 263

and we really cannot find any other reason. As Physico, we are told, comes from λειΦθείω. Why? Caret responsio. Similar to this is another fancy, that is rise and other present tenses of the same form are not derived from the persect is near, but that the perfects are formed from them. These two politions resemble each the other so nearly, that we shall venture to ask the sollowing parallel questions: If ελείφθην, επέχθην, εζεύχθην, and a great number of like words do not belong, as tenfes, to the train of λείπω, τάσσω, ζευγω, &c. by what means came they to bear to exact a relation to them? If έτημω, μεμραγώ, τεθνήπω, and the like, be not formed from "sma, &c. how did they obtain their resemblance to the more simple verbs raw, neach, θιάω, &c. In p. 162, we are told, from Scheidius, that τίθημι is contracted from rifespi. Then it would be rifispi; and the contraction ridigis would be circumflexed, to the manifest detriment of that important key.

Since there must no longer be any second agriss, Dr. Edwards directs all the participles, taken for participles of the second agriss, to be construed as of the present tense. If any person will take the trouble to turn to the two passages, p. 8, and p. 34, he will find, that the context not only permits,

but demands, a preterit sense.

Dr. Edwards is a little less sanguine here than in general; for, after allowing that in this very tract a passage occurs where the second acrist is manifestly contradistinguished from the present, he supposes that at first (i.e. before we can tell what they did,) they used this form in a present sense, but afterward

applied it as an aorist, for the sake of convenience.

If we suppose the accents to be infallible guides, (and infallible we must suppose them, unless we mean to find fault with the editor's circumflex,) the participle $\lambda \alpha \beta \omega n$ cannot be a present, because it has an acute tone. It is to no purpose to answer, that at first it was a paroxytone, but was altered for convenience; because a circumflex might be placed for convenience over a syllable where it could claim no right from a contraction.

Dr. Edwards has now and then given us an observation on other authors. Callimachus, says he, has a passage in his Hymn on Jupiter, 55, which has in vain exercised the wits of the critics:

Καλά μεν πέξευ, καλά δ' έτραφες, οὐράνιε Ζεῦ.

This difficulty he solves by his panacea, of an old verb in μ, τράφεμι, which makes ἔτραΦες, and which verb he proves to have existed from τράΦεν, nutriti sunt. For our part, we shall be contented, in company with Messrs. Lennep and

4

Ruhnken,

Atkins's Treatife on the Horizontal Sun and Moon.

ken, to believe that the verse is spurious. In Homer's n to Ceres, 211,

Δεξαμένη δ' έσίης ένεπεν πολυπότειπ Δπώ.

. Edwards would read, instead of soins sures, soins sures, i.e. puris manibus:—but where does he find such an s of the word χείς? Vossius in Ruhnken's note proposes σίβη, which seems too learned. We believe that Mr. white's conjecture, as it is the most easy, is most likely to te.

Δεξαμένη δ' όσίης ένεκεν πίε πόλνια Δηώ.

the foregoing remarks, we have given our opinion without e, but, we hope, without incivility. If any apology for gree of freedom which we have used, be thought necessary, all quote the following passage from Dr. Edwards's note,

shall close this note with an excellent passage from Lenin which he justly cautions us against paying an implicit nee to the decisions of the ancient or the modern gramns.—Id nimirum semper tenendum est in box studiorum geparum, aut nibil fere, vidisse grammaticos; tam veteres, recentiores: adeoque nullo modo eorum placitis esse standum; m, quando ex ipsa lingua natura petita esse ea oppareat. enim ad grammaticorum regulas lingua sucrunt condesa;

Atkins's Treatise on the Horizontal Sun and Moon. 2

principal discussion, which is the increased apparent magnitude of the horizontal sun and moon, has engaged the attention of philosophers from the time of Ptolemy to the present day. Ptolemy, in his Almagest, ascribes this phenomenon to the refraction of the rays by vapours, which enlarge the angle under which the luminaries appear; just as the angle is enlarged, by which an object is seen when under water:-but as soon as it was discovered that this angle remained the same, this solution was rejected. In another place, if we may depend on the information of Montucla, cited by Dr. Priestley in his History of Vision, p. 16, he advances a much more rational hypothesis. The mind, he fays, judges of the fize of the objects by means of a preconceived idea of their distance from us; and this distance is imagined to be greater when a number of objects are interposed between the eye and the body that we are viewing; which is the case when we see the heavenly bodies near the horizon. Whether this explication were suggested by Ptolemy, and whether he acquiesced in it, (if it occurred to him,) or not; we are certain, that Alhazen, an Arabian author, in the 12th century, states and explains it at large, and recites a variety of particulars, of which later writers have availed themselves. This ingenious author observes, that the fight judges of the magnitude of visible objects by comparing the visual angles, under which they are feen, with their distances; and conceiving the surface of the sky to be flat, it judges of the stars as it does of other objects extended over a wide space. of those objects that are observed under equal angles, that which is the most remote, is deemed the least; and thus a star, which is feen near the horizon, being referred to a greater. diffance than one that is more elevated, is concluded to be. greater; and the same star in different parts of the sky is estimated to be of a different magnitude. The Arabian philosopher was well apprized, that this phenomenon could not be owing to any real augmentation of the visual angle, and therefore that the refraction of the air could not be the true cause of it. In this folution of Alhazen, optical writers have very generally acquiesced. Vitellio, Kepler, Archbishop Peckham, Roger Bacon, Des Cartes, Hobbes, James Gregory, Malebranche, Wallis, Hygens, &c. &c. have adopted and illustrated the Tame hypothesis. Hobbes, indeed, very justiy accounts for the flattened form of the arch, which the sky seems to assume, by our being, to sense, out of the centre of that arch; and he adds, that this deception operates gradually from the zenith to the horizon; insomuch that, if the apparent arch of the sky be divided into any number of equal parts, those parts,

Atkins's Treatife on the Horizontal Sun and Moon.

in descending toward the horizon, would gradually subdecreasing angle. This hypothesis has been very satisly explained by Dr. Smith; and it is sufficient to refer ader, who wishes to understand the true cause of this menon, to his Optics, book 1. ch. 5. art. 161, &c. and

iks, book i. art. 301, &c.

the few who have been diffatisfied with this hypothelis, have afcribed the phenomenon in quellion to the confuled e on the retina, which is bigger than the diffinel picture same object would be, when all other circumstances are me; and, on this principle, an object, feen through a appears larger than through a more pure and dry air: others have supposed that the sun and moon in the horizon fainter than when they are at any confiderable altitude, fe the light proceeds through thicker vapours, which in-t many of their rays; and that the pupil will be dilated, ffendus imagined, in observing them; and, consequently, cture on the retina will be so much the bigger.

e author, whole work is now before us, recurs to the of refraction, long fince exploded; and, tracing the of refraction on rays that pass with different degrees of ity through a denie and spherical refracting medium to e of a spectator placed within it, he infers, that the last

As for his experiments, he candidly acknowleges that they lead to refults very different from those which have been stated

by the best optical writers.

We profess that we have been discouraged in our endeavours to accompany Mr. Atkins in the prosecution of his main subject, by directing our attention to the astronomical difficulties, which he has proposed at the close of this pamphlet. Our readers will probably be no less surprized than ourselves, when they are informed, that he expresses doubts concerning the annual and diurnal motion of the earth. Yet that this is the case, will sufficiently appear from the following extracts, which we select as a specimen of the difficulties that have occurred to the author:

Modern astronomers hold, that the earth's surface at the equator, on account of its diurnal rotation, moves according to a rate of sixteen or seventeen miles a minute, and that the earth itself moves in its orbit according to a rate of a thousand miles a minute. Now, since the slowest of these motions is perhaps as swift as lightning, and since the earth seems to stand quite still, I cannot, for my own part, help entertaining doubts, whether the earth's surface, or the earth itself, have such motions.'

In another place he observes, so fince what are called the fixed stars have no annual motion, they render it likely, that the summoves in an orbit round the earth, and that the earth does not move in an orbit round the sun.' From other circumstances, which the author recites, he submits, so how far we have room to doubt concerning what is said to be the sun's size, and the sun's distance.'

Such are Mr. Atkins's difficulties. We leave the reader to his own reflections.

ART. V. LeAures on Female Education and Manners. By J. Burton. 22mo. 2 Vols. pp. 500. 6s. fewed. Evans. 1793.

It has long been a subject of complaint, and in truth not without some reason, that boarding-schools for young ladies have devoted almost their whole attention to exterior accomplishments, and have paid little regard to the cultivation of the understanding and the heart. The author of these volumes has contributed very essentially toward the correction of this sundamental error, not only by giving an example of a regular tourse of moral instruction at the school where they were first read, but by surnishing other schools with an useful help in this important branch of education. A great variety of subjects, some of a more general nature, and others more immediately belonging to the semale character, are in these lectures discussed.

Burton's Lestures on Female Education and Manners.

with plain good fenfe, and in the simple style best fuited writer's defign. It was not within his plan to infift on s properly theological: but he has taken a wider scope ral and prudential topics, and has treated them all with form air of grave precept. In instruction as well as in irtus off vitium fugere; and we effect it no small excelin these lectures, that the reader will meet with nothing in and obvious truths, and important leffons of practical n; and will lofe no time in learning things, which, at e mature age, must be unlearned. Of a work of this nathe merit does not confift in occasional brilliancies, but general propriety and utility; an extract would therefore bute little toward guiding the reader's judgment cong it, except fo far as it may afford a specimen of the style. s view, we quote the following fhort paffage on female my:

disposition to expense in young unmarried women is attended consequence which they little think of. To dress - to appear and to be seen in public places, will undoubtedly attract the attend young men; but not of those, with whom a connexion for all be eligible. Defireus as these might be of an honourable with your sex, yet when they discover a want of accommy, proneness to extravagance, even in little matters, in your own concerns, in the costilucts of your clothes, and your little care

ART. VI. The Carthusian Friar; or the Age of Chivalry. A Tragedy, in five Acts, founded on real Events. Written by a Female Refugee. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Owen. 1793.

A TRAGEDY, having for its title the Age of Chivalry, founded on real events, and written by a female refugee, excited various expectations. The age of chivalry and real events, feemed to us to imply, either a contradiction, or, a historical tale. We have perused the work, and it is certainly not the latter. Written in English, too, by a female refugee! Turning to the preface, we read.

The following tragedy, or dramatic peem, (if it be not allowed the former title,) was written long previous to the author's coming to this hospitable and bleffed country, and without any idea of committing it to the prefs. The production of a female pen, at the early age of eighteen, will furely meet with indulgence from the generous people it is now presented to, who have so lately manifested their universal and unprejudiced benevolence. Add to this, the principal incidents that compose the piece are drawn from real occurrences, which are contained in the annals of a certain noble family in France, with which the author is connected. Inexperience in stage-business, in every part of the world, joined to the absolute transgression of the unities of the perfect drama, have deterred her from hazarding it in a representation; but (if apology be requisite for its incorrectness in this point.) she has surely the sanction of precedent; and the difficulty of combining a succession of circumstances within the strict compass allotted, to excuse the licence.

Having gained this information, we faid, a female, a foreigner, and only eighteen years old, must furely write her tragedy in prose. We wonder, indeed, that she should be able to write a tragedy in our language: but the rhythmus of it she certainly cannot understand. We turned over the leas, and sound it written in blank verse; and the measure fully as harmonious as that of other tragedies of no greater general merit! We next inquired concerning the idiom, and could discover no well-founded proofs that it was not entirely English! We dare not, from this internal evidence, and we have no other, affirm that the affertions contained in the title-page and presace are not literally true: but we dare boldly maintain that, if true, they are extraordinary.

The tragedy itself, as a poem, has little claim to admiration. Like many other modern tragedies, it has too much the air of novel and romance, and too little of the human features, paffons, and actions. Its efforts are to elevate and surprize, and not to rivet attention by reality. Yet, if there really be a perfon eighteen years old, male or semale, French or English, who has written this tragedy, impersect as it certainly is, we

The Carthufian Friar : A Tragedy.

fely prophecy that, negligence excepted, in ten years' will be in that person's power to write what critics will and the world applaud. confirm these remarks, we will cite a few lines; and,

ey may not appear to be unfairly felected, we will take inning of the tragedy.

> ACT I. Scene 1.

" The Duks's Caftle in Provence. A Saloon.

s St. Chir, Raymond, meeting.

· St. Clair. Well, Raymond, haft thou aught obtain'd?

oes Vincent still persist to quit the castle?
Raym. I think his empty terrors now give way o his defire to ferve our youthful lord; leav'n bless his gracious mien!) I wonder not hat ev'n this headstrong boy already loves him. St. Clair. He therefore flays? -- But look that 'tis most freely; would not have reffraint employ'd to hold him; et him go hence; if early he engage o curb th' offensive licence of his tongue, o farther spread his cowardly surmise, or cv'n relate what he has here observ'd. Raym. I much infifted, Sir, on these conditions, nd he has promifed to be more discreet;

it I in nought can change his firm idea, hat 'tis defect of reason in her Grace

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Whether this be or be not English, in its rhythm, confiruction, and idiom, we leave our readers to judge; to them, too, we refer the question, whether it be or be not written by a French lady, only eighteen years of age?

ART. VII. A poetical, ferious, and possibly importanent Epistle to the Pope. Also a Pair of Odes to his Holineis, on his keeping a disorderly House; with a pretty little Ode to Imocence. By Peter Pindar, E.q. 4to. pp. 41. 23. 6d. Evans. 1793.

PLOYED with Royalty and Madam Schw —, the Courtly Bard now looketh about for a dish of still higher relish, on which his Muse may feast; -lo! nothing less will satisfy than his Holiness of Rome, and the nice tid-bits under his facred protection .- Fye on it, 'Squire Pindar!-Positively, Sir, this is too bad; and if you go on at this rate, we shall be obliged to cut with you. - David, (said the sage Johnson to Garrick,) I will come no more behind your scenes, for the filk stockings and white bosoms of your actresses excite my amorous propenfities."-Now, know all men, and women in particular, by these presents, that we have something of the like objection to urge against the present warm (we believe we ought to say warming) exhibitions of Peter's Muse. Had he only attempted to improve our acquaintance with the celebrated ladies of the calendar; had he described them ever so minutely, " from St. Dell to my Lady Loretto;" we could have perused his eccentric eftutions with the philosophic apathy belitting sedate and sober Reviewers:—but when, instead of introducing us into the company of barmless saints, he pops us into his Holiness's disorderly houle:

Where, with the spicy nectar waxing warm,
The knave gets drunk upon the pouting charm;
Selzes the damsel round the waith so handy;
And, as I've said before, gets drunk, the beast,
Like Aldermen, the guttlers, at a feast:
For ladies' lips are cherries steep'd in brandy.
The slaxen ringlets, and the swelling breast;
The cheek of bloom; the lip, delightful nest
Of halmy kisses, moist with rich desires;
The burning blushes; and the panting heart;
The yielding wishes that the eyes impart;'

old as we are, for ladies' love unfit, we feel something riotous in our blood; we look as unlike grave Reviewers as ever, gentle reader, thou sawest a fet of old fellows in all thy life; and we are ready to curse Time, his hook, scythe, hour-glass, and all, for cutting us off so soon from the jeys of our dancing-days.

No wonder then that Peter himfelf is all in flames in configurate of his too near and very imprudent, as well as imperti-

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pproach to his Holiness's b—y-house. To allay the mighty gration, he addresses himself to INNOCENCE, in a very and seemingly tranquillizing ode:—but all will not do—ight as well have played a syringe on St. Peter's, were it, to put out the slames.—Peter's Muse stands him in no stead against the bewitching seductions of pleasure, than ing Solomon's wisdom;—and this the rogue is simpudent h to consess, even at the conclusion of this his pretty ode to Innocence!

Thus could I dwell with thee for many an hour:

Yet, should a rural VEN us from her bow'r

Step forth with bosom bare, and beaming eye,
And flaxen locks, luxuriant rose-clad cheek,
And purple lip, and dimpled chin so sleek,
And archly heave the love-seducing sigh;
And cry, "Come hither, Swain—be not afraid;
Embrace the wild, and guit the simple maid."—

I verily believe that I should go:

Yet, parting, should I say to thee, "Farewell!—I cannot help it—WITCHCRAFT's in her cell—The Passions like to be where tempess blow—

Go, girl, enjoy thy fish, and flies, and doves; But suffer me to giggle with the Lowes!"

Thus should I act—excuse me, charming Saint;
An imp am I, in VIRTUE's cause so faint;
Like DAVID in his youth, a lawless swain!

not to affert that we meet with no good communications, nor even that the number of such is sew: but we meet also with much that is insignificant, and undeserving of the room which it occupies: in sact, the book is too bulky; and if the society had possessed the judgment, or rather perhaps the fortitude, to have curtailed it, they would have done service to the readers. It is not, however, always easy to make a selection: the members seem to have been desirous of offering what information they had; and no man, as it has been remarked, chuses to have his all, however little, neglected.—It may be, perhaps, under the influence of these considerations, that the society have resolved,' as we are told, 'to facilitate the future communication of their papers, by publishing their volume in numbers, four of which are to constitute a volume.'—The first part of the sourth volume, as we afterward learn, is already in the press.

The first article in the present volume is 'A case of original deafness, with the appearances on dissection: by J. Haighton, surgeon.'

The sole cause of this deafness was found in the labyrinth of the ear; which, though perfectly formed, instead of containing water, was filled with a solid caseous substance.—To this case are added some remarks, one of the most useful of which respects the obstruction of the Eustachian tube:

It is not altogether certain that an obstructed Eustachian tube will produce total deafness, though it may diminish that sense in a very high degree, in proportion as the freedom of vibration of the mem-

brana tympani is impeded.

But if it could be clearly proved that a total deafness arose from this cause; and if it were likewise possible to ascertain this in a living subject; there is a probability of obtaining relief from an operation. The most natural idea in such a case would be to restore the natural opening by the introduction of instruments up the nose. But the distant situation of the orisice of this tube from the entrance of the nostril, together with its being out of fight, create a difficulty; and it is probable that our attempts in this way might be in vain. There remains, however, another expedient. It is well known that the massid process of the temporal bone is internally composed of large cells, which have an opening of communication with the cavity of the tympanum in a manner similar to that of the Eustachian tube: in such a case a perforation might be made into that process, and the communication between the external and internal air be again restored."

That it was well known to Mr. Haighton that the mastoid process of the temporal bone was composed of large cells, &c. cannot be doubted: but it may be doubted whether he had so far reduced his knowlege to practice, as to make a perforation into that process, in order to restore the communication between the external and internal air. If our conjecture be right, he appears to have taken this hint from a communication which Rev. July, 1793.



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read some little time previous to his own; and which, it is placed in the appendix, might have appeared with t in the body of the work. As we always wish to "render Cæsar the things that are Cæsar's," we shall here extrast aper to which we allude. It is a letter from Dr. Zencker. Sims:

len deprived of the fense of hearing lose a great deal of the hopof human life; and therefore an attempt to reflore this faculty se laudable; or even a hint on so interesting a subject may defurther investigation.

e perufing the Memoirs of the Medical Society of London, containing so many valuable and useful observations, I met treatise on deafness, published by you; and deeming the comation and promotion of knowledge the chief purpose of this inm, I take the liberty of offering an observation taken from the Ir. Schmucker's (a famous German surgeon) collection of

gical works relative to this kind of discase.

man living in Silesia was for a long time deaf of both ears: all ies applied by a skilful physician having proved inessectual, he ist without relief, bearing his misfortune philosophically. An matory swelling afterwards rose at the masterial processes of emporal bone: poultices and a gum plaister were applied; such was felt; and, after opening, a good pus was discharged; sys afterwards the pus became thin and ill-coloured, the surgeon ered with the probe the bone naked and rough: the next day a long of bitter baths was inicided, and the initial materials.

incus; notwithstanding which, the dogs retained the power of hearing: from thence he infers, that, when the stapes remains at the foramen-ovale, and the auditory nerve is unhurt, the hearing itself can continue, though lessened; but destruction of the stapes, the nerve, the vestibulum, cochlea, and canales semicirculares, is attended by an irrecoverable loss of hearing. Now I approach nearer to the cause of deafness resulting from the faults of the eustachian tube, through which the currents of air, occasioning found, get into the cavum tympani, by way of the mouth and nofe. The several affections of this tube, and their origin, are very well explained in your treatife, and the proposed method of cure found successful in many instances, by expelling the air through the tubes, the mouth and nose being closed, daims a right of further experiment. But would not the effort of such a kind of expiration prove many times dangerous to the lungs and brain? I at least observed in such a trial a very great uneasiness,

nay, pain in the brain.

Mr. Wathen's method of injecting into the tube by the way of the mouth or the nose, can certainly be very seldom applied, because few patients can suffer the tickling of the nose in getting in the pipe of the syringe; and the most skilful surgeon will miss very often the opening of the tube. But the injection through the mastoid al cells finds very easily the way to the cavum tympani, and further to the eustachian tube, attenuates and detaches the thickened glutinous humour, and also the internal coats may be strengthened, even small cohesions may be separated by the force with which the injection is thrown in. In the disease, called fistula lacrymalis, the injection of quickfilver in the obstructed nasal canal is proposed: could we not, perhaps, expect greater success from its injection into the obstructed ear? But I am doubtful whether the undivided mass of the quicksilver, prevented from the passage through the cohering tube, could be absorbed, or remain as a heavy and hurtful body: watery medicated fluids are doubtless absorbed, and can perhaps be of use even in the affections of the other and more noble internal parts of the ear.'

Art. 2. A remarkable instance of recovery of sight by the dispersion of a cataract, which had occasioned blinders in one eye for eleven years. The case described, with hints grounded on it as to the mode of cure in similar complaints. By James

Ware, surgeon.

This complaint was removed in consequence of violent infammation attacking both eyes, but principally that which was difeased. Mr. Ware imagines, from the circumstances attending the case, that ' the chrystalline (crystalline) humour was completely diffolved: - abforbed, we suppose. - In a supplement to this paper, two cases, somewhat similar, are related by the same author: the first of which is rather curious. A woman, who had a cataract for a confiderable time, received a violent blow, from a splinter of wood, on the upper lid of the eye. The eye was almost immediately made sensible of an uncommon and an unpleasant bright light; and the following

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pupil was become quite clear.'- It feems that the cacould not have been removed here by abforption in conre of inflammation; it must in fact have been depressed accident, as in the operation of couching. In the second lady had two cataracts, one of which was extracted, and, end of ten days, the was found to have recovered the fight reyes. It is likely, however, that the old lady was fan-I supposing, as the afterward did, that any difference of ook place before the operation: the opacity in this eye robably removed in confequence of the inflammation by operating on the other. - The hints toward an immethod of cure in this complaint confift merely in a in to the fociety, whether it might be expedient to emrt to raife an inflammation in the eye: and by what this might best be accomplished. The author has not his own opinion on this subject : but we will take the to state ours: which is, that, though this practice might mes be followed by a cure, it would most generally fail; at the benefit would be obtained at more trouble, and with ch pain, as would attend an operation .- Although feveral ces are recorded of cataracts removed after inflammation, hould be remembered that no record is kept of those which remained in spite of the presence of such inflammation-

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and in the duplicature of its falciform process, nearly midway between the os frontis and occiput, and almost as low as the corpus callosum, two hard bony substances were found envelop-The largest of these, which was about the size of the nail of the little finger, was flattened and irregular in shape, and had tharp ferrated or jagged edges; its weight when dry was four grains. One of its fides was nearly smooth, having only one or two small furrows in it, similar to those which are made by the pressure of the vessels of the dura mater on the inside of the cranium. Its other fide was rough and uneven, and a little marked with blood. The smallest of the bony substances was long and slender, refembling a portion of a fine needle, and having its extremities terminated in sharp points. In the ventricles the quantity of water was greater than is usually found. The other parts of the brain were undiseased.' With the probable cause of these appearances, the writer was unacquainted. till after the diffection; when he was informed, that about twenty years ago the patient had a violent fall off horseback, which, it was then supposed, had fractured the skull, and it was fome months before he was restored to health, without undergoing any operation on the cranium?

Added to this case, we have an elaborate enumeration of authors who have treated of injuries of the brain, &c. and who

have been consulted by the author.

6. A case of an extraordinary irritable sympathetic tumour. By

C. Biffet, M. D.

This was a small swelling on the outside of a woman's leg, which, during the periods of pregnancy, was attended with severe pains. It returned after being extirpated by the knife, and was finally removed, though apparently not very skilfully, by caustic.

- 7. The seventh case we shall not particularize, as it is not adapted for general discussion, and as no practical deductions are made from it.
- 8. On the effects of the compression of the arteries in various discases, and particularly in those of the head; with hints towards a new method of treating nervous disorders. By Caleb Hillier Parry, M. D. Bath.

Dr. Parry was first induced to try the effects of compressing the carotid artery in the delirium of a patient affected with nervous complaints. His account of the experiment is as follows:

I had remarked that the fits of delirium were preceded by a fense of fulness and throbbing pain in the head, (what the common people in this country call opening and shutting,) accompanied with a great de-

U 3 gree

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f heat and flushing about the head and neck, and a fense of g in the throat and upper part of the therax. These symptoms ed to me evident marks of too great a quantity of blood through the carctid arteries into the brain, and to the outlide head. It followed that if the cause were removed the effect cease. Under the pretence therefore of feeling the pulse in the took the opportunity of the first attack of the delirium, when ny was contracted into an immoveable frown, to prefs through by thumb on the right carotid artery a little below the laryox, or remember having experienced a philosophical pleasure in any comparable to that which this experiment afforded me. No was the pressure made than the authority of the countenance dised, and the patient was reflored to the perfect use of her fenses wers of reasoning. At the same time the headach, and the fensibility with regard to light and found, which had always place in the intervals of the paroxyims, were altogether wantod the patient declared that in every respect she was free from int. After having fully satisfied myself as to the effect of this e, I gradually removed my hand. The frown in an inflant reon the countenance, and every mark of delirium immediately led. In the course of many subsequent months I was able to this experiment some hundreds of times, and to exhibit it to endants with the utmost certainty of success.'

ce this discovery, Dr. Parry has tried the effect of compresse e arteries in various diseases arising, as he supposes, from due determination of blood to the brain; and has sound Memoirs of the Medical Society of London. Vol. III. 279

12. Of tetanus, and of convulsive disorders. By James Curric, M. D.

Some cases are here given to shew the utility of cold bathing in tetanus and other convulsive disorders.

13. Case of extra-uterine gestation, of the ventral kind; including the symptoms of the patient from the earliest period of pregnancy to the time of death (fisteen months); with the appearances on diffection. By W. Turnbull, M. A surgeon.

We have elsewhere noticed this case, which has been separately published by Mr. Turnbull. See the Catalogue for this

month.

14. On the submersion of animals; its effects on the vital organs; with the most probable method of removing them. By

Charles Kite, surgeon.

For the contents of this very ample paper, we must refer our readers to the volume at large. The article will not easily admit of abridgement, and it would be unsatisfactory to give the conclusions, which Mr. Kite has established, without noticing the experiments and reasoning on which they are sounded.

14. A description of four coses of gutta serena, cured by electricity. To which are added, two cases of the like nature, in which the chief means of cure was a mercurial snuff. With incidental remarks annexed to the cases. By James Wase,

furgeon.

In the remarks accompanying these cases, Mr. Ware tells us, that he suspense there is a cause of gutta serena which has escaped the notice of anatomists: 'The cause I mean, (says he,) is a dilatation of the anterior portion of the circulus arteriosus;—which, I think highly probable, has been the cause of the gutta serena in not a sew of the instances of which no particular account has been given, and especially in those cases where the blindness has been accompanied with an inability of moving the upper eye-lid.'—In another place, he adds,

Besides the blood-vessels of which I have been speaking, there is another not yet noticed, the dilatation of which may also essentially affect the sight. I mean that vessel, the course of which lies directly through the centre of the optic nerve to the retina;—a branch of which also passes through the vitreous humor, till it reaches the capsule of the crystalline lens. The dilatation of this vessel I have often superfied might be the cause of blindness in such instances where it has come on suddenly, and in which, though all objects placed directly before the eye were totally invisible, there has nevertheless remained some small sense of light, so as to give a consused perception of objects sideways. In such cases, it is to be noticed, that the pupils are seldom much dilated; notwithstanding which, they admit of very little variation of size in different degrees of light.

For

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the cure of these complaints, Mr. Ware recommends, other remedies, the use of a snuff compounded of ten of turbeth mineral, well mixed with about a drachm of wis sternutatorius.

Observations on certain herpetic affections, attended with irritation. By J. C. Lettsom, M. D.

Remarks on the angina and scarlet sever of 1778. By Johnstone, M. D.

Of the Lepra Gracorum. By W. Falconer, M.D.

Falconer imagines the cause of this disease to exist in the application of cold to the body when in a heated state, in early the depends on the Bath waters, used both interand externally. He mentions a variety of other remedically administered in this disease, from which he has seen any decided advantage gained. We think with Dr. ner in this respect; and indeed we are firmly persuaded in this disease, and in many others, more mischief arises the medicines which are taken, than from the disorder

Case of epilepsy successfully terminated. By J. C. Lett-M. D.

this case, the principal medicines were white vitriol, bark,

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and the pulse natural, when the effusion of the dissolved blood beneath the skin made the most frightful show. Further, the debility, when it had begun, went on augmenting, nor was its progress slopped by food or medicine, of which she took scarcely any; yet in this very low condition the hæmorrhage ceased, and a re-absorption of the extravasated blood took place. After it had appeared by these tokens that the blood had in part recovered its healthy state, the symptoms of debility went off with surprising rapidity, and the sunctions were all presently restored to their natural vigour. It is, I imagine, inconceivable that a person walking about, and persorming all the usual actions of life, should at the same time labour under such a debility of the extremities of the fanguiferous vessels, as that they should be incapeble of retaining their contents, especially when none of the excretory organs were preternaturally relaxed. On the other hand, we have daily examples of the utmost degree of debility in the animal and vital functions, without any tendency to the extravalation of blood, or the unusual discharge of any other humour.

21. Case of aneurism, with the diffection. By W. Luxmore, furgeon.

22. Two cases of hydrocephalus. By Mr. T. Jameson, surgeon.

The patients were two children of the same family. In both

cases, the disease proved, very speedily, fatal.

22. Experiments made on the laryngeal and recurrent branches of the eighth pair of nerves, with a view to determine the effects of the division of those nerves on the voice. By J. Haighton.

The circumstances, which the writer of this paper endeavours to prove, are, that the recurrent branches of the eighth pair of merves are the true vocal nerves; and that the voice, when taken away by the division of nerves, may be restored. These points are pretty clearly ascertained by means of experiments, the cruelty of which makes us lament that we have gained this trisling addition of knowlege. Anatomists, who talk so coolly on the necessity of frequently operating on living subjects, should be careful to establish better knowlege and more certainty from their bloody work.

23. A case of a wound in the thorax; with some remarks. By W. Norris, surgeon to the Charter House and General Dis-

penlary.

The intelligence contained in this paper is of no great importance: the best observation is that which controverts the opinion, that wounds penetrating both cavities of the thorax are satal, in consequence of the lungs collapsing from the admission of air.

24. Cases of hydrophobia. By J. Shadwell, M. D.

These cases are brought forward in support of a mode of practice recommended by Dr. James Sims, on the faith of an

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cek manuscript, written, as we remember, " with Hippsconcilencis," though it certainly could not boost Hippofor its anthor . This practice confilts of the liberal we nternally, and also externally by means of friction. With to the utility of this practice, we declared, at the time of ng first recommended, that we were unbelievers: our at present, is not much increased. I'wo cases, in which administered, are related: the event of the first was in the fecond, the patient recovered. In the first case, adness of the dog was ascertained by the circumstance of other dogs, who were bitten by him, having gone mad. hadwell tells us also, with an appearance of credulity we do not commend in a relator of facts, of a pig bitten s fame animal, which, nine days afterward, alarmed the by difplaying unufual agility, and by fpringing repeatedthe ground to the height of a dozen feet .- As the dog's is was certain, there is no reason to doubt that the hydroin the patient arole from the bite of the mad animal, h we are not informed at what period of time after the ne fymptoms appeared: some confiderable space, howmust have intervened, as we find that the Ormskirk me-, and fea-bathing, had been tried. In other respects, the oms marked the difeafe, except that the wound on the

20th of December: when it is well known to be a very leading symptom of the disease that the patient cannot bear exposure even to the air of a common room. When roused from this state, he rushed violently into his house, seized his mother, and bit her head, and afterward continued raving without an interval of reason till the next morning. Now these are all stronger marks of mental irritation, than of the peculiar disease arifing from the bite of a mad animal; yet this is called the convullive paroxysm, which is said to have recurred on the following evening. On the next morning, (Friday, Dec. 31.) there was a rigidity about the muscles of the lower jaw; he rejected liquids and folids with horror, and was visibly affected with the cold air: he now was rubbed with oil, and some was poured down his throat: on the next day, he was quiet, except when drink was offered, or dogs mentioned; on this day he drank a little quantity of water: on the next (Sunday) he called for drink, rejected broth, but swallowed some water: on Mon-day, he was persectly composed: on Tuesday he was remarkably affected by noise and cold air: Wednesday and Thursday afforded no particular alteration; and on Friday he took sustenance without fear. During the whole of his confinement. his pulse continued at forty-five; and he was perfectly unconscious of any occurrence during his illness. Such is the history of this disease, which differed from the true hydrophobia in its first attack, as well as in its subsequent symptoms: which does not feem to have affected respiration; which was accompanied with no appearance of suffocation, nor strangulation; in which we hear of no alteration of the faliva either in quantity, or quality; no violent efforts to disengage from the mouth any thick and glutinous fecretion; no change of voice, &c. &c. and. which, in its termination, was so unlike that dreadful disorder hitherto supposed incurable, that it was removed in a week by rubbing the body with oil, and by taking the small quantity of four ounces of this fluid into the stomach *.

On the whole, we have no positive certainty that the dog was mad: there are many reasons to suppose that the man had not the true hydrophobia; and we think we have every reason to say, that, whatever disease he had, the oil may have had little effect in curing him +.

F. F. K. C.

^{• &#}x27;Between three and four ounces were exhibited internally, the dofe being increased with the facility of administering it.'

[†] Let us not be considered as desirous to prevent future trials of this remedy: we wish, on the contrary, to hear of them, and of their refula.

Withering's Betanical Arrangement, Vol. 111.

Of the paracentesis. By James Sims, M. D. President of edical Society.

Sims offers objections to the common mode of performe operation, called tapping, and speaks of its danger and cess, in terms which do not appear to us to be justified by actice which we have seen. In its stead, he recommends hrusting in a common sancet at the umbilious, until the issues."

Case of laborious parturition, with the consequences. By M. nson, surgeon.

The history of two cases of bronchocele. By. J. C. Lett-

he first of these cases, says Dr. Lettsom,

ordered a plaister, of four parts of soap cerate and one part of or, to be spread on soft leather, and applied to the tumour, and a day to bathe the part (taking off the plaister) with saponaceous it, prepared with double the quantity of camphor. The effect plan was so extraordinary, that in less than one week from the chibition of it, the disease totally subsided; and after the forme months, I have been informed, it has not shown any srecurrence.

he fecond cafe, the fuccess from the fame treatment was

whole should be completed*. That period being at length arrived, we are at liberty to deliver our sentiments; and we shall lay them accordingly before our readers.—It may, however, be proper first to describe the work, and asterward to state our opinion.

The first volume opens with a short preface, announcing the advantages of the present edition:—to this is subjoined a list of friends, who have favoured the author with their assistance. In this list, some names of eminence are to be found, such as Dr. Smith, proprietor of the Linnéan museum, and Mr. Woodward, of Bungay in Susfolk. We were surprized at not seeing either the name of Hudson, or of Curtis, in this list. Surely this latter gentleman, whose knowlege is founded entirely on practical cultivation of the English plants, would have been a host in himself; many an error might have been prevented had he been consulted. Diss aliter visum.

Next follows a treatife, named The Defign; wherein is anmounced the plan pursued in the whole work, with respect to the
several points of natural knowlege that are introduced. We are
next presented with a tract, styled Advertisement, by the Author of the
References to Figures, respecting the mode of his introducing his
references, and the uses of them, &c. Lastly, a catalogue of
botanical works cited in this edition, by the author of the references †. This catalogue abounds with short remarks on the
several authors, and on the merit of their compositions.

We are now arrived at the main object of the work, the arzengement of the British plants after the Linnéan method, in classes, orders, genera, and species.—The first volume carries us to the end of the class Decandria,—the second volume continues the arrangement to the end of the 23d class, Polygamia.

Soon after these two volumes were published, we heard, with great regret, that a division had taken place between the two oftensible authors of this arrangement, Dr. Withering and Dr. Stokes; and the subsequent publications too fully confirmed the report. In the first place, the printing of the last volume was immoderately delayed: though, to keep up the remembrance and expectation of the public, part of the prolegomena to the third volume appeared, in a thin octavo pamphlet. In the next place, when the last part appeared in 1792, the name of Dr. Stokes was found in very sew of the descriptions.

To proceed to our analysis of this 3d volume:—a preface makes a slight apology for the delay of the publication: next follows an introduction, explanatory of the method pursued in

^{*} See Rev. vol. lxxix. p.461. and N.S. vol. ii. p. 101.

⁺ Dr. Stokes.

. Withering's Botanical Arrangement, Vol. 111.

is CRYPTOGAMIA, particularly in the fungi:—here the ing class CRYPTOGAMIA begins with an account of Leddifcoveries of the fructification of the genera of this class, erfed with remarks by the author;—and a few addenda he volume: the general indices were given in the little let, or 3d part, mentioned above. The last volume is y appropriated to the class CRYPTOGAMIA. We find in plates in the whole work; the last fix of which are

larly valuable.

nour language, on which more labour was bestowed;—
there is much more than any necessity of the case required.
In our language, on which more labour was bestowed;—
there is much more than any necessity of the case required.
In our language, on which more labour was bestowed;—
there is much more than any necessity of the case required.
In our Moschata. A young Student, anxious to gain commonwhere, does not repine at the quantity of information rought together for his use:—but he soon fickens, and to receive his instruction in a more simplified form, y, we are first told what Linné, what Mr. Woodward, e name appears so frequently, and whose affistance is so ageous, that he seems almost to be the author of the) or what some other sriend, has said; then what Dr. ring has observed, or what Dr. Stokes has thought proadd to the whole compilation of description. A true the method pursued in this work may be formed from

* Carduus spinosissimus latisclius sphærocephalus vulgaris. Bauh. pin. 387. is referred to by Linnæus, and may be the plant, but the figure cited by C. B. from Dod. is evidently a different species, the C. inclinans of the Botanical Arrangement. — (Cirsium majus singulari capitulo magno. Bauh. pin. 377. referred to in R. Syn. is clearly a different species.) ST.

Passures in a calcareous soil. Huds. [and road sides in a sandy or

gravelly foil. ST.'

All this is excellent instruction to a young botanist, and must give him wonderful pleasure in investigating the plant: but he will soon get above the necessity of such laboured and repeated description.—All science should be conveyed to us in apt and

concile explanations.

We are under the necessity of observing another and more material evil arising from this multifarious description. It happens sometimes that the several authors, who are quoted for accounts of one plant, are speaking of different plants. - The Carduus acanthoides will be a sufficient example. The authors bere cited, are Linné, Ray, Hudson, Lightsoot, Woodward, and Dr. Stokes: - but of these, Linné speaks of the true acanthoides, the C. crispus of Hudson; and all the other authors speak of Mr. Hudsen's acanthoides, a plant not known to Linné. A young botanist will here be quite baffled by the quantity and contrariety of description. This contradiction does not occur frequently: but it is necessary to point it out, in order that, where any thing of the kind is found, the reader may be aware that, most probably, the different authors have been speaking of different plants, which they may have been severally led to confider as the plant they were describing.

We would here wish to give our opinion, first, of the first two volumes.—It must be confessed that the authors concerned in this publication deserve the highest praise for their industry, and the greatest encouragement for undertaking so arduous a talk; and we must add, that, for certain purposes, and to a certain degree, it is absolutely necessary that every English botanist of every description should have the work in his hand:—he will learn much botany if he be not far advanced; and be he ever so great a proficient, he will find many a curious fact retailed, both in botany and entomology, which, perhaps, be has not heard before:—but we would not deceive our readers, and lead them to think that the subject of English botany is exhausted,—very far from it:—1st, Many plants of difficult discrimination are left as obscure as they were found; witness Verenica spicata and hybrida, Poa nemoralis and angustifolia, &c. Many are wrongly named; Erica didyma, for vagans-Cardrus inclinans, for acanthoides-Trifilium stellatum, for mariti-

Withering's Botanical Arrangement, Vol. 111.

adly, Many wrong accents are given, as Cufcuta, nátum, Panicéus *, &c. 3dly, Strange names are given nts +; Nymphæa alba is known perhaps to every child the name of white water lily, and so it is called by these rs in their Design, but, in the body of the work, they flyle

e do not profess ourselves enamoured of the mode of accenting d in this work. The accent is written in the body of the word: the term 11,000 dia, or accentus, implies, not an incorporation, but lition, of a mark, directing the mulical found of the fyllable to it is applied; - and this additional mark has been, till now, inly placed over the fyllable. To our eyes, the new mode is radightly. We could have wished also that some of the comwords had been printed with two accents, to mark the pronunciof each part of the compounded word, viz. Saginoides, for Sagi-

. &c.. Vith respect to the naming of plants, we agree in general with rened authors of this work :- but there are fituations in which ange of a name may not only be proper but necessary. Thus mys approved Mr. Curtis's change of the Linnean name, tura regela, into efficinalis. The term ereda must mislead, for the when left to nfelf, is precumbent. All names, which miflead, be done away. Befide, the authors of partial Florar have no in expect that absolute submission to their nomenclature, which to the more noble leaders of the science. - A name which is implicable in a partial Fiere, may lofe all its force when intro-



·Withering's Botanical Arrangement, Vol. III.

it white water can, &c. 4thly, Strange habitats are reporte thus the malva verticillata, evidently a foreign plant, is faid grow on a dungbili *, on the fide of the turnpike road from Bimingham to Hales Owen, at the third mile stone. Avena str. gefa, a foreigner also, (and which, of course, may very possible have been imported at some time with the common out, or other feeds,) is faid to grow among oats, barley, and, fometimes, rye. Laftly, to mention no more, the remarks on the authors quoted in this work, are generally in a very dogmatical style. instance the case of Mr. Bolton, p. xlii.—The wanton attack on Mr. Curtis, whose Fl. Londinensis, the first of botanical publications, is given in fo expentive a manner, that no adequate profit can be made from it, p. xliv .- The flight thrown on the admirable Leers, p. lii. - I he censure on Miller, p. lv.—The contempt with which the labours of Reichard + are treated, p. lix.—and the manner in which the great name of Professor Schreber, and his immortal work on grasses, are treated, only because he published his work in his own language, for the instruction of his own countrymen. Must we call this eruge mera, or the effects of a flippant propenfity? We cannot but think the censures harshly and improperly applied, and, in consequence, we must appeal from them to the judgment of the imvartial public.

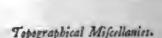
• We are really surprized at such a habitat being marked. Are we suppose that this dunghill is to remain at the third mile-stone, from ar to year?

might be justified in enlarging very confiderably on this subject, example here set us of daying would be thought to countenance my remark of the kind. We never deem a man the wifer for ating his fellow-labourers. Such gentlemen should consider

Quam temere in nosmet legem sancimus iniquain.

ish it to be understood that, in marking passages and subour remarks, we literally only opened the volumes, and sound once, not studiously selecting them. We are conscious that we e pointed out matters much more directly to our purpose.

[†] Three dashing words are thrown out to characterize this painsing author—'A mere compiler'—Although Reichard's work be, from very nature of it, a compilation, yet this expression does not give a idea of it. When we hear a person called a mere compiler, we a contemptible idea of him, and are apt to think that there is no it in his work which may not be found elsewhere, or anywhere, all it a compilation, is saying the truth, but not the cokele truth, thing due to a man, who has bestowed so much shour on collectionary additional synonyms to so many thousands of plants?—The ical Arrangement itself might be called a compilation; where have the instances of the opinions of others compiled? See the article tria officientis, or almost any other.



have been speaking hitherto of the first and second vo—the remaining part, like the ship of Sergestus, comes behind, ordine debilis uno. We have scarcely any more Stokes's affishance, except in some of the filices; the steadiling the description is considerably altered; and, families, quite on the compiling system. By the prepublication of the first part of the 3d volume, in which ven the general index, which referred only to the first plumes, we are lest without any guide to the contents class Cryptogamia, except the synoptic table at the the class.

new light of much importance is thrown on the class rogamia, except in the fungi. Bolton had laboured as; Dillenius, Hedwig, and Dickson, the musci, and art of the alga; the fuci, conserves, and ulves, remain as they were, except in a sew instances, where Major has given some very creditable assistance:—but, in the great attention is visible throughout. Of Mr. Bolton's s good use is made; and many things, which escaped owlege, are corrected. We do not mean to say that ithering is himself faultless; succeeding authors will throw much light on many of his inaccuracies: (who, in 3 on such a subject, can possibly avoid falling into them?) he is entitled to the warmest thanks of all English bo-

the whole; and they receive merely a temporary arrangement, fince, should they obtain encouragement, the addition of immense quantities of new articles must totally alter the order.'

Antiquarian researches are without doubt entertaining, and may be directed to a variety of real improvement. It is therefore desirable that they should be prosecuted by those who possess a mind which guards against superstition and servility. It is curious to view antique buildings, and to trace antient customs and manners; yet, whatever advantages our remote forestathers might in some respects possess, how absurd would be the conclusion, that the ignorance, the slavery, the hostilities, the oppressions, and the abject submissions of those times, are preferable to the knowlege, ease, and freedom, of more enlightened days? Intelligent readers have been often disgusted by remarking the filly bigotry, meanness, adulation, and prejudices, which writers on these topics have sometimes discovered. It is painful whenever sensible and ingenious men are observed to disgrace their labours by any tincture of this kind.

Our author observes, that,

The number of ancient feats throughout the kingdom is not great; every day, (he adds,) some foolish heir sacrifices the curious abode of his forefathers to the infipid refinements of modern tafte. In turning my eyes on all England, I cannot at this moment perceive more than two or three instances of a truly ancient baronial castl. still continuing to be used as a seat. By these, I mean, such as were the heads of baronies or earldoms established at or soon after the conquest. Of the greater part of these rude buildings, standing principally on hills, commanding large towns and villages, subject to them (many of which are now used as gaols) the ruins are still remaining, and engraved in Grose's collection. It seems a circumflance not a little fingular, that the male line of our original postconquest Earls soon ended in semales.—Of the principal male line of the barons of that date, there are some, though but few, yet enjoying their honours.—Of these, Earl Berkeley resides in his ancient eastle; Clinton (Duke of Newcastle) has, ages since, lost his old posfessions; Nevile retains the castle of his barony, though in ruins; Courteney and Grey still hold some of their original estates, and all the rest have long ago lost all traces of their old lands."

This writer pursues his accounts of our peerage throughout different periods of the English history, to the institution of Baronets in 1611.

A large portion of these, (he observes,) either since elevated to nobility, or enjoying their original titles, still flourish, and the genealogist will regret that this highest hereditary rank of commoners, has, in the present century, so much departed from its designation, and been conserved almost exclusively on mercantile, and other new-raised families, at the expence of exciting the just discontent of the

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incient

Topographical Miscellanies.

ountry-gentry, whom, naturally attached as they are to an d throne, it has a tendency to alienate from monarchy." this predilection for pedigrees of peers and baronets, or closes his preface by a temporary lift, as it is termed, For, (fays he) the feldomer a feat nt mansions. its owners, the greater probability there is of its preits ancient ornaments. The venerable graces, of in old family is proud, (more especially when raised by ftor,) difgust a purchaser, who loves too often to forearly part of his own life.'-This lift is not pretended erfect, and it may therefore be improved by others: it of castles, abbeys, and antient houses, commencing e reign of Henry II. and acquainting us with the name, ntry, former owners, prefent owners, and, in some inthe architect.

volume contains collections for the counties of Suffex, nt; also for Hampshire, Cambridgeshire, Oxfordshire, re, and Derbyshire: those from Suffex form the greatest The contents are not generally of a nature to furnish fuitable to our convenience and brevity. We notice age of Glynde, in Suffex, for a fimilar reason to that which hor affigns for adding fome particulars:

this parish, (he observes,) is Glynd-Bourn, situated in a most alley. It has been for about two centuries the feat of the fa-

to the family of Albini, and was afterward given to the monastery of St. Alban's by Higo, rather Nig' (Nigellus) de At the dissolution, it was fold to Sir Christopher Hales, Knight; afterward to the Culpeppers, and then to Thomas Hamon, who had before leafed it from the death of his father in the year 1526; and his father 6 had been tenant of it to the monastery.' It is still the seat of the Hammonds, and it must therefore be very little short of three centuries since their first residence here: nor is it a little singular, that the family who were tenants to the convent, should still have continued uninterruptedly to this day to own and occupy the place.'—To the above we add a few lines from the description of the Black Friars, Canterbury, on account of a name (Jacobines) which at this time of day resounds pretty much through Europe: 'They were, (observes this editor,) called Dominicans from their founder, St. Dominic, a Spaniard; Black-friars from their garments; and in France Jacobines, from having their first house in St. James's-street at Paris.'

Some of the biographical accounts in this volume merit the epithet amusing; as particularly under the articles of Catlage, Cambridgeshire, and of Wrexten, Oxfordshire, we have relations of the family of North and Guildford, a principal part of which is taken from the lives of Lord-keeper Guildford, Sir-Dudley North, and Dr. John North, written by their brother, Roger, barrifter, and king's council, ' three of the most entertaining and instructive pieces of biography in the English language.'-Under another article, Burton-priory in Oxfordshire, we meet with a long account of that eminent man, Sir Lucius Cary, afterward Lord Falkland; it is extracted from Lord Clarendon, ' that most delightful of all historians.'—The account which that author has written is known to be very interesting. In Lord Falkland, we seem to have a memorable instance of the great difficulty which a man of probity and virtue may experience in the determination of his conduct in contentious and violent times.

The number of engravings in this volume is thirteen: if they enhance the expence, they also afford great ornament and beauty. They are as follow: Wilmington-priory; the Grange, seat of Lord Hampton; Parsonage-hall at Terring; Michelgrove; Slindon, residence of the Earl of Newburgh;—all these are in Sussex.—St. Alban's in Nonington; arches over the river Stour; gate of the Black-friars, with a map of its antient site, Canterbury; Catlage, Cambridgeshire; Drayton Bassett, Oxfordshire; tomb of Ralph, last Lord Bassett; and Breadshall church and priory in the county of Derby.

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XI. On the Properties of Matter, the Principles of Chemistry, the Nature and Construction of Aeriform Fluids, or Gases. In h the Absurdaties of the Theories hitherto advanced, and gelly received, respecting those Subjects, are fully exposed; and an Explanation of them given, as Reason naturally points out, every Observation fully confirms. By E. Peart, M.D. &c. pp. 118. 2s. 6d. Boards. Miller. 1792.

have already * given a fhort sketch of some of the leading principles of this gentleman's philosophy, leaving every to form his own judgment of their folidity. Whatever may ught of them in that respect, it must be acknowleded that thor has shewn no small share of ingenuity in contriving, toditying, three simple elementary substances, one solid to sluid, so as to account for all known, and indeed all to the phenomena.

r folid particles are inactive, possessing no other properties mpenetrability and general attraction, but yet may be cred as the primum mobile of the whole system; for the uids, called ather and phlogiston, are, in their natural ent state, still more inactive, possessing no attraction of ind, and are excited into activity by being, or having in contact with the solid. The excited shuid attracts as of its own kind, and are appears itself into tight lines.

These compound principles, in which the solid and stuid are inseparably united, serve as central points to other atmospheres of the same construction; and different excitements of these produce the magnetic, electric, aereal, and aeriform states. When two atmospheres, attracting one another, have brought their central solids into union, the sluids themselves, united, quit the solid, and form fire or light according to their excitement; and thus different degrees of excitement very readily account for

every thing.

In combating the erroneous opinions and absurdities of philofophers, this gentleman seems to be fighting against shadows.
The first, of which he takes notice, is, that bodies are supposed to act on one another at a distance, or without contact, and
to have immaterial spheres of attraction and repulsion around or
between them. It is not our present business to enter into
this subject: but we may observe that his own atmospheres
seem to remove the difficulty only one step farther, by finding a
tortoise to support the elephant that supports the earth; for we
cannot conceive how either of his sluids can arrange itself into
right lines in every direction, unless its parts either be previously
in contact in every direction, (which cannot be supposed,) or else
attract one another without contact; and when the two sluids
are mixed together, and each of them separately to be so arranged, the difficulty is doubled.

Dr. Peart thinks it absurd to suppose, that 'pure air is composed of oxygen with caloric or fire,' or that the gases owe their aeriform state to the union of fire with them; because an atmosphere of fire about the other matter would feel hot to the singers, &c.; because the aeriform study continue aeriform though they seel cold; and because the same substances may seel hot, and yet not be aeriform. He mentions many particular instances, all tending to shew that the aeriform state is not produced by an atmosphere of sire: but who ever thought that it was? When two bodies are said to be chemically united, it is never imagined that either of them assumes the form of an atmosphere. When the Doctor himself speaks of two central points being drawn together into union, and of an acid and an alkali forming by such union a neutral compound, he surely cannot mean that one indivisible atom forms an atmosphere all

round the other.

The third and last of the errors here noticed, is the assigning of contrary effects to the same cause. Lavoisier [we are told,] says that mercury is a simple substance; that pure air is composed of oxygen and caloric;—that, by means of heat, mercury will attract the oxygen from caloric;—and that likewise, by means of heat, caloric will attract oxygen from its combination.

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Geddes's Translation of the Holy Bible. Vol. I.

ough so much stress is here laid on two opposite currents, ough the experiments adduced feem to demonstrate their ace, the author by no means supposes two distinct suids. ofiders negative electricity, not as a vacuum, (for only a miroportion of the natural quantity can possibly be exhausted,) erely as a quantity less than what the body contains in its I undisturbed state, and therefore equally real, and of activity, with the positive, so as to urge its way through refishing medium to meet the positive. Electric atmo-, of one or the other kind, he confiders as the electricity ally resident in the humidity or vapours suspended in the air nding the electrified bodies: excited glafs repels the elecuid, and consequently, beyond a certain distance, renders re dense; while excited wax has the contrary action. . Read gives a description and plate of the apparatus by his experiments and observations were made, and of a confiderable improvement in the electrical doubler. As publer is always found to exhibit marks of electricity, it een supposed to retain a portion of the electric fluid which een communicated to it at the last time of using, and ore has been reprobated as utterly unfit for detecting any quantity of new electricity. Mr. R. however flews that

eneral electricity of this instrument is of a very different, being no other than that which it receives from the

affiduously employed, and for the appearance of which his profpettus, and other preliminary writings, have prepared the public mind, and have excited, in the lovers of facred criticism,

great expectations.

It will be unnecessary for us, in this place, to pay any compliments to Dr.G.'s learning and abilities, or to offer any remarks, after what he himself has advanced in his prospessus, to shew that he is sensible of the qualifications which are necessary to constitute a good translator. That he has undertaken the task with a mind richly stored, will be acknowleded, whatever opinions may be formed of the merits of the version.

In this early stage of the work, we do not purpose to enter into a critical discussion of excellencies and desects, but to post-pone that part of our duty till more of the translation and of its

promifed accompaniments shall come before us.

The want of a new translation of the Bible, together with a judicious exposition, has frequently been lamented. Commentators, instead of boldly exploding errors, have sadly misapplied learning by endeavouring to defend them; and, by embarrassing religious faith with matters which belong not to the province of religion, have often turned the philosophic inquirer. with disgust, from the sacred records. Thus, for instance, by rendering the Hebrew word in Gen. i. 1. 372 created, and then injudiciously explaining it to mean, to produce into being, or to make out of nothing, divines have provoked and entangled themselves in a dispute with philosophers about the antiquity of matter; whereas, had they translated N72 formed, or had not infifted that to create, in this passage, signified the absolute production of matter, their labour would have been shortened, a ground of endless dispute would have been avoided, and a great **Aumbling-block removed from the threshold of religious inquiry.** We often wonder that good and sensible men should wish to encrease the difficulties of faith, and to load religion with burthens which it is not at all necessary that she should carry. While we are defirous of strengthening and giving effect to the genuine principles of religion, we wish to detach her from frivolous disputes and unedifying controverly, in order that philosophers and men of literature, peceiving the reasonableness of her demands. may be induced to peruse with attention the books of the Old and New Testament; with which, many persons, who are emment for science, are, we apprehend, very little acquainted.

The Bible is indisputably the most curious as well as the most valuable monument of antiquity; and religion and science are both interested in having it exhibited with all possible in-

^{*} See vol. i. of our New Scries, p. 51.

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ty, and ably explained. Even fetting religion out of the ion, to the philologer, the antiquary, the historian, the sopher, and the legislator, it is extremely valuable. Much has employed the labours of the learned, full justice, we append, has not yet been rendered to it. From such men as Dr. des, who is uninfluenced by the vulgar prejudices and is fears of ordinary theologians, biblical criticism may be some valuable accessions. He enters on his undertaking an openness and manliness which evince that he has no views to serve; and whatever may be his mistakes or ions, his labours are evidently intended to support that remains the support of th

this volume, Dr. Geddes has translated the pentateuch, or, ney are commonly called, the five books of Moses, and the of Jestina, introducing them with an ingenious preface, h contains some general remarks on these writings. The lator does not here enter into an examination of the quel-whether the author of the pentateuch was inspired, but ifes amply to discuss it in his general preface; he does not, ver, leave us in the dark respecting his sentiments on this. He wishes, he says, to draw the attention of the present

He wishes, he says, to draw the attention of the present o the Hebrew writings, as he would to any other antient oftion, and to revive if possible our declining talks for winning speech of Judah; the most sublime ode of Pindar, with either of the longs of Moses; the twelve tables, with the decalogue; and the republics of Plato or Tully, with the whole Mosaical jurisprutence: I will venture to say, that, if the taste of the comparer have not been previously vitiated by modern meretrecious resinements, he will be induced to give to the former, either a decided preference, or an equal praise.'

Into the character of the author of the pentateuch, as an historian, orator, poet, legislator, and divine, Dr.G. in this short preface, does not profess to enter; yet he cannot let this occation pass without offering some observations on his historic and legislative capacity; which thus commence:

It has been usual with the annalists of most nations, to begin their biffories with some account of the origin of the world: so does the auther of the pentateuch. His cosmogony is a brief one, it is true; being comprised in one short chapter: but that short chapter exhibits a grand and fingular scene. The writer does not amuse or tire his reader with long metaphylical discussions, about the nature of the universe, the generation of matter, cause and effect, time and eternity, and other such subtile and insolvable questions; but, with the greatest simplicity, and the most imposing air of conviction, tells us, that an ALMIGHTY Being made those heavens which we behold, and this earth which we In the beginning God created the beavens and the earth,
This is the general proposition. But, whether it refer to inhabit. Gen. i. 1. a prior primordial creation, or merely to one particular link in the great chain of mundane revolutions, we can only guess from circumfances; and are free to form our conjectures, agreeably to the moives of credibility that present themselves to an attentive unprejudiced To me it appears highly probable, from the context, and from wher passages of Hebrew scripture, that the proposition is purely proeptical; and that by the creation of the heavens and of the earth is meant more than producing those appearances in the former, and that change n the latter, which then gradually took place, and which are so beauifally related in the subsequent paragraphs. Those who deem it more probable that the words relate to a primitive and absolute creation, und translate, In the beginning (or originally) God kad created the beavers and the earth, must still grant that the earth was, at the period of the fix days creation, in a defolate uninhabitable state: and, accordingly, they render the next verse, But the earth had become a desolute waste, It is, therefore, of little moment whichever of these two hypothefis be admitted; although the latter seems to be less natural, less confident, and less analogical.

A celebrated writer has justly remarked, that if the author of this cosmogony had been an inhabitant of any other planet, suppose Saturn, he would never have mentioned this earth of ours, nor any other part of the great universe, but in as far as it was conspicuous to the inhabitants of Saturn. Hence, he would have said: In the beginning Cod created those beavens and this Saturn. Now, such a creation might certainly extend no farther than to the recovery of Saturn from a stration that had rendered it uninhabitable; and it might have exist-

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that uninhabitable state for ages, or undergone a variety of is, according to the pleasure of the great Governor of the uniSo may this, much less, planet, called Earth, have rolled in its rbit for millions and millions of years; and have undergone, for that we know to the contrary, millions of revolutions; before it ade the habitation of man. Whether, priorly to that ara, it er been inhabited, or lain till then, in its chaotic state, is a queshich it would be rash to decide: yet many terrestrial phenoment us to suspect that it had been peopled with animals of some ong before the commencement of our earliest chronology."

these remarks, Dr. Geddes has effectually rescued Moss the attack of modern philosophers; and however he may be sance with the common herd of modern commentators, he that he has the sathers of the church on his side; and, in e, in which such high respect is paid to antient authority

age, this is fomething.

his subsequent observations wear the same manly comn. He scruples not to say, that he prefers the allegorical adopted by Philo and Origen in explaining the sall, to that considers the whole as an accurate history of sads. see allegories, (he says,) may be reveries, but they are pleanes, and preserable to literal inconsistencies.

e opinion to which Dr.G. most inclines, is that the whole ingenious piece of Hebrew mythology, or an imagined re-

to account for known phenomena.

eddin's Translation of the Holy Bible. Vol. 1. 303 s not confider the Jewish, or rather the Hebrew, hisapperly commencing till the birth of Abraham; which, to the Hebrew copies, is in the 292d year after the th, according to the Samaritan copy and the 70 verto-449th.

this epoch, (continues Dr.G.) it is carried on in a pretty then, and written in, to me, a most enchanting style. I will a so say, that it is entirely unmixed with the leven of the 1: to require this, in the annals of so remote a period, would mable. Let the sather of the Hebrew history be tried by this of criticism, as the sather of Greek history. Let the in both be distinguished from what is not so; the natural matural; the highly probable from the barely possible; and we shall find, in both, nearly the same genuine marks of velocities.

linele inclined to fcepticism.

for example, that has ever read the pentateuch, can entera of Abraham's coming originally from Chaldza into Chais fojourning in Egypt and Palestine, and of his being the c; of Isac's being the father of Jacob; and of Jacob's father of Reuben, and eleven other fons? Who can doubt went down to Egypt with his family; that his posterity Preduced into a state of servitude, and thence escaped under & of Moses? Who can doubt of their having wandered w in the wilderness, before they reached the land of Chahef their having received, during that interval, a code of h they believed to be of divine origin !- Indeed, these laws relarly interwoven with their history, from their departure ypt, that it would be the wildest of all fancies to imagine work of a posterior forger. No one in his senses would have fuch a forgery. A forger would not have adapted his laws Hy arising contingencies and circumstances; but have subcomfiances and contingencies to his preconceived laws. His. a have been more simple and systematic; but it would not fo persuasive an air of genuineness.

Indices him to think that the most antient Hebrews I anthropomorphites; and that to this circumstance are to ascribe all those expressions concerning the Deity, mingly degrade the Deity; such as, his making his armined with the blood of his enemies: (Deut. xxxii. 42.) but we he promises to discuss at length in his General

Hebrew ritual he judiciously observes:

l ever, at first fight, to thoughtless and superficial readers, evergrown mass of trivial or unimportant ceremonies; but sider the view with which, the time when, and the people

[·] Herodotus.

Geddes's Translation of the Holy Bible. Vol. 1.

om, this rirual was compiled; we shall soon be convinced, I prethat it was compiled with great judgment, and with a more dinary knowledge of the human heart. The view of the comor composer, was, to establish and secure the worship of the one loo; and, consequently, to prevent idolatry, to which his peore so prome, and had been so long accustomed in the land of

Very wifely, therefore, he makes a composition with them, nging them out of that land; to which, in spite of his indulthey more than once threatened to return. "Ye shall still te) have a public pompous worship: ye shall have a tabernacle, ir, priests, sacrifices, cer monies, sessivals, as other natious have: "My, and appropriate all this to the worship of the Lord, the of Israel."

them. For the remarks on the fyshem of Hebrew legislation we have them. For the remarks on the fyshem of Hebrew legislation.

the long pacific reign of Solomon, which is called the Aunage of Judea, Dr.G. conceives the pentateuch to have composed; in course, he does not think that, in its present it was written by Moses, though compiled from materials, of which were coeval with Moses;—this also, is a point of for future discussion.

comparing the Hebrew and Samaritan exemplars with the il versions, and with one another, Dr.G. has endeavoured and account comparing the pentagues, and from this comparing the pentagues.

§ 1. Joshuah prepareth to pass over the Jordan. § 2. The passage of the Jordan. § 3. Renewal of circumcision, &c. § 4. The siege and taking of Jericho. § 5. The sacrilege of Achar and its consequences. § 6. The siege and taking of Hai. § 7. The device of the Gibeonites to save themselves, &c. § 8. War with the confederate kings, &c. § 9. Conquest of the northern parts of Canaan, &c. § 10. Recapitulation of the conquests on both sides of the Jordan. § 11. First partition of the land, &c. § 12. The sanctuary erected at Shilo, and an altar built by mount Ebal. § 13. Second partition of the land, &c. among the remaining tribes. § 14. Cities of resuge appointed. § 15. Forty-eight cities assigned to the Levites. § 16. The Reubenites, &c. return to their own possessions. § 17. Joshuah's sirst charge to the people. § 18. The last charge and death of Joshuah. Thus are the history and other contents of these antient writings beautifully recapitulated and abridged; and, by running the eye over them, the mind will be assisted in recollecting the several events recorded, and their order.

Whoever is at the trouble of comparing this translation with the short specimens of it given in Dr. G.'s proposals, and copied in the above recited place in our Review, p. 60. will perceive some triffing variations. Thus the Hebrew title Bereshith is prefixed, together with the Greek one of Genesis, to the first book of the pentateuch, in the specimen given in the proposals, together with the chronology [year of the world 1.—year before Christ 4004]: but the only title to this translation is the common one, The book of Genesis. The rendering, in the specimen, a mighty wind blowing, is in the translation a vehement wind over-sweeping. Severed the light, in the specimen is distinguished (certainly a better word) in the translation. The evening came, and the morning came, one day, in the specimen, is altered to the even-

ing bad come, and the morning had come, ONE day.

These variations from himself and from the common version are of no great consequence. We do not perceive the utility of any great departure from the common translation. The word rendered firmament, no doubt, ought to be rendered, as Dr. Geddes has translated it, by the English word, expanse: but we think And the evening and the morning were the first day wants not to be altered. If this translation were adopted, and appointed to be read in churches, the word which Dr.G. has employed in Lev. 2v. 1. (genorrhæa) might produce a comical effect, and give the audience an idea that the learned translator must certainly be a surgeon, or an M.D. Perhaps Dr.Geddes would say, and in this he would say truly, that such parts of the Bible ought not to be publicly read.

Dr. Geddes apologizes for not accompanying the volume with the Critical Remarks which he promised. He waits, he REV. JULY, 1793.

fays, to avail himself of Dr. Holmes's collation of the manufcripts of the Septuagint, and of some valuable works lately published in Germany and other foreign countries. When these Remarks make their appearance, we shall take a more critical notice of this splendid translation of the Scriptures.

ART. XIV. Historical View of Plans for the Government of British India, and Regulation of Trade to the East Indies; and Outlines of a Plan of Foreign Government of Commercial Economy, and of Domestic Administration, for the Asiatic Interests of Great Britain.

4to. pp. 632. 11. 18. Boards. Sewell, &c. 1793.

no apprehensions need be entertained for the welfare of the East India Company, nor for any of its multifarious concerns; which must certainly at last be framed and settled on the wisest principles. From the time of Lord Clive, whose enterprizing genius was fortunately exerted in establishing and securing those territorial possessions which gave a new complexion to the United Company of Merchants, down to Mr. Hastings, whose superior talents were no less conspicuously engaged in completing and extending the views of his predecessor, many have been the regulations framed, and the plans suggested, for rendering this trading company equal to the enlarged scale of its attentions, and to provide for the welfare of the remote countries and inhabitants thus added to the British empire through the company's vigorous exertions.

The two distinguished personages above mentioned were eminently qualified, by their abilities and actual experience, to point out regulations and arrangements suited to existing circumstances; and, in the interval between them, many clear heads have been exercised in the same necessary business. Gentlemen in the direction, agents under them, and active proprietors of India stock, guided by the competition of interests, and, lastly, the National Senate, have all co-operated in an arduous

task without the assistance of a precedent.

The volume before us is calculated to bring this important and delicate subject, with the many opinions which have been started concerning it, into one comprehensive view; an undertaking which required a clear conception, and called for much patient industry. The following summary of its contents is given in the preface:

In the introduction, the leading events in the history of Hindcostan and of the East India Company are explained, as the source from which the successive plans upon the subject of Indian affairs have proceeded, as well as the system upon which the British interests in the East are at present administered.

In part I. a digest of the plans from the conquests of the company till their affairs came to be placed under the controll of the state, and from that period to the present times, is brought under review, that the political and commercial principles, which must direct in the future administration of Indian affairs, might be fully perceived.

In part II. the outlines of a plan of foreign government, of commercial economy, and of domestic administration are submitted to ex-The foreign government is deduced from the history of India, and from the mixed tenure of conquests and of treaties by which Great Britain holds its possessions. The judicial, financial, and military powers required to administer this government with effect, are explained, in their relation to both of these sources of information.

The connection of the East India trade with the revenues of the provinces, and with the revenues of the nation, is next examined; and suggestions for the improvement of the export trade, of the circuitous trade within the company's limits, and of the import trade, are fubmitted to confideration. A sketch of the constitution of the Courts of Directors and Proprietors, and of the Board of Commissioners for

the affairs of India, concludes this review.

The authorities upon which the whole of this detail rests, have been obtained either from the records of the company and from the archives of the state, or from the communications of those whose official and local knowledge qualify them to aid their country upon this important occasion.'

The history of the East India company, since the disastrous American war, includes an interesting period, productive of important events and confiderations which have now arrived at a crisis:

The pride of a great people will lead them to wish, that they could drop the curtain (and for ever) over the events of this fatal war; for the sake of these natural and honourable feelings, we shall suppose the memory of it to be obliterated, and rather look to the East,

where Britain was ultimately successful.

Whether we ought to refer the preservation of our Asiatic empire to accidents, or to the talents and wisdom of the servants of the East India company, it is not our province to decide. The fact admits not, happily, of any doubt. If, in the Western world we had provinces to relinquish, if at home, we had debts of an alarming magnitude to discharge; our dominions and trade in the East still remained entire, and had even been encreased. The nation, therefore, looked to the East Indies, as the most important foreign dependency it possessed; by its trade to Asia it hoped to revive its arts, diffuse its manufactured productions, restore its revenue, and, once more, to give splendor to

India had, previous to and during the war, become the subject of public attention, and the conduct of the company, of parliamentary discussion. The house of commons, satisfied that information respecting the true state of the British dominions in the East was wanting, had appointed fuccessive committees composed of members of acknowledged probity and talents, who, with great impartiality and ability.

ven, from evidence, reports on the conduct of the fervants of pany, in the different wars which had been carried on in Himon the nature, value, and extent of the British dominions in nfula of India; on the revenues which they could yield; and expences requisite for supporting the civil and military estants necessary for their preservation and prosperity.

refult of these reports, however, seems, upon the whole, to on the formation of a general opinion, that the interests of the y, and of the nation, had, in many instances, been milandernd, in some cases, lost in those of individuals; that the comhough qualified, from their characters and purfuits, to be merwere not competent, (at least on difficult emergencies,) to be A fyllem, therefore, was now to be brought forward, at of which, in the first place, should be to remedy the evils rom the mal-administration of the company's servants abroad, the next place, to render India itself a productive branch of the empire.

e establishment of these general opinions, both in the minds of on and of the legislature, produced the plans of affording the on of the laws of England to the natives of India, who are fubour government; of taking measures for rendering the servants company abroad more obedient to the orders of the directors ; and of subjecting the directors to the superintendance and of the executive branch of government. These schemes, by assumed a more defined aspect; but what rendered them

It becomes, however, a nice political question, by what method can dominions thus acquired, and thus to be held, be rendered useful to the British empire? When we come to submit propositions on this branch of Indian affairs, this subject will be found to require much political discussion. A distant province may be easily incorporated with an absolute government, for it is only adding to its power and resources; but to ingraft a remote dependency upon a free government like Britain, requires a delegation of power, which feems to be incompatible with its spirit, and which uniformly becomes a source of jealously in itself, and in the exercise of it. The more alive the subjects of a free government are to the value of the constitution which they themselves enjoy, the more unguarded do they become, in their speculation, about extending the privileges of it to the distant dependencies on their power. The political characters of the center, and of the extremities of an empire, are different and distinct subjects. privileges, which are the vitals of the one, would, if conveyed to the other, necessarily cut asunder the connexion. Rome retained its legislative and executive powers, and only gave its protection and its laws to the provinces. Great Britain has acquired provinces in the peninfula of India, and its sovercignty in them can only be preserved by extending the protection, and the laws of England to the subjects of the King (including the Armenians and others who have been confidered as British subjects)—by affording to the natives protection; and by introducing such improvements upon their laws, as their habits of thinking, and of transacting with the company, will allow.

"To render then our Indian possessions and the trade connected with them an useful part of the empire, and of its resources, the governments abroad must be vested in officers, with sull, prompt, and discretionary powers. With such powers, their administration will be understood by the natives, because resembling those which their ancient Soubahdars possessions in exercising them, an easy and open communication with the country princes and states, on positical or commercial subjects, may be maintained; and the balance of power in India, remain in the hands of the company, considered as a branch of the

Mogul empire.

It is, perhaps, a still more difficult political arrangement to fix the source of this power in Britain, in such a manner, that by its weight it may not destroy the equilibrium of the estates of parliament. The influence which the management of a rich domain might give to the executive or legislative powers, should not exceed the proportion which the one or the other ought to hold, by the spirit of the government; for it would be as dangerous an extreme to give the whole of the Indian patronage to the one, as it would be unwife to assign it, without controul, to the other.

The example of the most free nation of antiquity is followed in the system by which India, at present, is governed. Rome made its proconsuls absolute in the provinces, but responsible to the senate and people. Britain, in like manner, has made its governor-general of India as absolute, apparently to the natives, as the ancient Soubahdars were, but responsible to the directors, and to the controlling power, and both responsible to parliament.

' The

fystem then to be adopted for the future government of our dominions, and regulation of our trade to the East Indies, is out of the characters and usages of the people. It must be by the treaties, which the East India company have concludate native princes and states; and while we are to delegate a sat is prompt, discretionary, and suited to the case, or to the ration of our interests in India, we must take care, that the exthat power shall not be made the means of biasing the legisnor, of conveying to the executive government any degree of beyond that, which the spirit of the British constitution has it.

well observed, that the bill now proposed to parliafor the settlement of these great national concerns, canone of experiment, but must be one of system; and the s opinion, that the present system, with modifications provements suited to actual circumstances, ought to be

ed, is supported with found reasoning:

on a fair view of this national subject, and under no impressions of suggesting propositions for the general interest and honor ritish trade and empire, and propositions too, arising out of after of the natives, our subjects in India, and out of the chaft the inhabitants of the countries to which our Asiatic comextends in connection with the experience of the East India v. and of the executive power controling their proceedings, it

carry it on, they are unnecessary and impolitic, when the value of that trade has become generally understood, and when the profits from it ought to be laid open to the public at large: that the East India trade has reached this point, and that the wealth of individual merchants would be profitably employed to themselves and to the nation, if they were permitted a liberal competition in Asiatic commerce. In this way (they will fay) not only the general export of British produce would be encouraged, but the import of the materials upon which fo many of our home manufactures depend, would become a new spring to the industry of the European and Asiatic subjects of Great Britain. Before we compare the trade, supposing it to be in the hands of the private merchant, or in those of the company, we should distinguish between a monopoly, when it signifies an exclusive title in its possessor to bring into, or to withhold from the market any commodity, and the exclusive trade of the East India company, where a body of merchants engage in a concern, of which any one may become a partaker, by buying a greater or a lesser share in their stock, and where the sale of the imports is open and legally authorized, and the trade so regulated by the legislature as to give to the nation a superiority over foreign and rival companies. In the hands of the London company, the India trade might perhaps be denominated a monopoly, but in those of the United Company, it must be considered as the British nation trading upon a large capital to the East Indies.

However specious these opinions in commerce may be in their general aspects, it is the application of them alone that can determine their value; and, in the present case, a sew leading sacts will be suf-

acient to point out the impracticability of adopting them.

The trade of the East India company differs from that of other merchants in the following circumstances: the individual merchant, when he employs a fum in any branch of trade, considers what interest he can draw from his money, independently of the risk of trade, deducts this from what he has realized beyond the prime cost and charges, and then fets down the remainder as his profit; or if the interest of his money would have exceeded the sum so realized, he considers the difference as a loss, The company again may be said to trade on a capital partly furnished by others, since, first, all that they pay interest for is their capital stock and bond debt, and (considered in one point of view) the bills of exchange from India and China: their outstanding debts to individuals, however, bear no interest, and the amount of them is very confiderable, as well as the profit on private trade, that The comis, the duties paid by the private trader to the company. any thus may be faid to trade so far on a capital furnished by others. Hence the difficulty under which the individual merchant would engage in the competition with them; and hence the danger of any attempt to divert from the East India company into any other channel, a commerce that has proved so very beneficial to the interest of Great

Another circumstance in which the trade in the hands of the company differs from that of the private merchant is, that they have employed large sums in investments, from the revenues of India. The private merchant must ship a quantity of goods from Great Britain,

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rom the fale of them, purchase produce in India; and, after all charges, realize a certain amount in Britain. If the t realized shall exceed the interest of the money employed, the would be profitable on the whole; but if it thould not yield the on the capital, the trade is a lonng one. The homeward carf the company, again, are furnished partly by the revenues in partly by bills drawn on England, and partly by the fale of ex-

The profit or loss, therefore, with them, becomes divided into and import trade; and in the proportion that the one or the is burdened with a larger or leffer degree of the charges, the or loss is encreased on either. The revenues, however, it must nembered, are to be brought home through trade, and through

immediately under the public controll.

third circumstance in which the trade of the private merchant the company differs is, that it would be almost impracticable to e advantage of bringing home the revenues through the private fo as to allow him the fame advantages which the company in the circuit of their commerce. The rifles to be run by the in entruling portions of the revenue to the merchant, who was end on the profits of an uncertain export trade to and import rom India; on the profits of an uncertain trade from India to allowing the profits from China to be certain, would be fo great, might affect the national object of realizing the revenues of India That the measure of entrusting the revenue to the como pass through their trade to England, has been found, from

now existing, is sufficient to check us in the experiment of opening the trade, since the result might be more dangerous in the end of the eighteenth, then it was in the end of the seventeenth century.

In the second place, the opinion of the public, as well as the deliberations of the legislature, have to meet embarrassments from stock-jobbers, and party men. The object of the one class will be to profit from the sluctuations in the price of India stock, &c.—that of the other, to acquire political insuence, in consequence of their furnishing, from time to time, specious views of Indian affairs to the public.

It would be impracticable, and indeed useless, to follow either of these classes through the intricacy of their statements, or to examine the motives from which they may have written; it will be sufficient to point out the general objects with which they did write. These objects were to bring out statements of Indian accounts, dissent from those which the records of the company surnish; or to institute a train of arguments to prove, that the particular plan they recommended, would be better than the present system. The public, however, always derive profit from such controversies, though they cannot rest upon any information, with considence, but upon that of authorized accounts and their vouchers. A man who wishes to mislead the public, on any question, will reason ingeniously from a few or from presumed facts. He, who is in possession of the real facts, will leave them, without reasonings, to have their effect on the good sense and judgment of the nation.

In the third place, the opinion of the public, as well as the deliberations of the legislature, will have to meet embarrassments from speculators in our manufactures, who will hold out the plausible arguments, that if the trade to the East Indies should be laid open, the demands for the exports of British produce would be increased, and the import of raw materials become so great, as to give a new spring to the British industry; and that the manufacturer would, with such advantages, be enabled to work at a cheaper rate, and, of course, to

fell at a lower price.

In all cases where the facts lie removed from common observation, nothing is so easy as to offer a specious opinion, and nothing so common as to be duped by it. This is remarkably the case in the present instance. It is to be recollected, that the British exports, in so far as they regard the East Indies, may be divided into two kinds: Such as are manufactured from materials furnished in Britain, as hardware, woollens, &c. and such as are manufactured from materials chiefly brought from the East Indies, as from cotton and raw filk. Having derived great profit from the demands of the East India company for hardware, &c. the manufacturer concludes from his past gains alone, and overlooks the injury he might sultain if the demand on his ingenuity and industry should be lessened. In this stage of his self-deception, he looks forward to the profits he might reap if this demand could be encreased. He thinks, judging from his past profits, that if the materials which are brought from the East Indies could be obtained at a lower price, then he could exercise his skill and industry with a double profit to himself; for he still could keep up the former price of his manufactured produce, and thus accumulate wealth, with

he same facility that he can imagine the enjoyment of it. If, on the hand, it would be improper in the executive government, in a ercial country, to overlook or to check these expectations; on her hand, it would be a breach of duty not to prevent the ruindulgence of them. On a reference, accordingly, from the Comof Privy Council for trade and plantations, to the Court of Disformation on the subject of their export trade, three differences were prepared, the substance of which, better than any ing, will meet and put down the plausible schemes of specu-

ne particulars of these reports are too diffusive to allow us ter into them: but there is one circumstance relative to ade to China, which is, by inserence, a strong argument of throwing open the intercourse with so distant and so pea people to the discretionary competition of private adrers. On the idea that the embassy intended to promote stension of our commercial intercourse with the Chinese e will prove successful, the author well observes,

dmitting the probability of this event, it would be a rash meabeary from the present line of conducting the China trade upon bability only, more particularly when the fact is adverted to, that he passing of the Commutation Act, the British imports from have been doubled, while the trade of the foreign companies Canton has been gradually on the decrease. Any innovation, Enough has now been laid before the reader to convey a general idea of the contents and complexion of this elaborate work; the improvements recommended by the author * will hence appear to be subordinate to the present outline of oriental administration, and for these we refer to the volume.

ART. XV. A foot History of the East India Company. Exhibiting a State of their Affairs, Abroad and at Home, Political and Commercial; the Nature and Magnitude of their Commerce; and its relative Connection with the Government and Revenues of India. Also Remarks on the Danger and Impolicy of Innovation, and the Practical Means of ensuring all the good Effects of a Free Trade to the Manusacturers of Great Britain and Ireland, by Matter of Regulation, without disturbing the established System. 4to. pp. 30. 3s. Sewell. 1793.

THIS short history affords the most concise and clear view of the nature, constitution, and present circumstances of the Last India company, that we recollect to have seen.

The author thus ingeniously explains away the popular objection to the East India company, as being a monopoly:

The appellation of a chartered monopoly, given on various occasions to the East India company's exclusive trade, can be meant only to extite popular odium, and bring it into general disrepute. We have, in a former chapter, shewn the origin of the two East India compaties, and that the former held their exclusive trade by the voluntary

-The woollens, camblets, &c. having the company's marks upon them, they accept of, without examining the bales. Tin in pigs, though a recent export, they accept of without weighing, if they have the company's stamp on them, a proof that the confidence is habitual. Metals, brought by individuals, are always weighed. The fame confidence which is given to the quality of the British exports is not experienced by the factories of the other European companies. company exported in 1791, 930 tons of tin, which, by the advices received in November last, sold for 16 tales per pecul. The exporters of the Cornwall tin, thus, have profited from this confidence which the Chinese have in the company, whether we judge from the quantity, or from the facility with which the article is fold. If the trade was open to the private adventurer, the risk would be great, and the market might be shut against the English. This interesting circumfance can be best verified by the supra-cargoes lately returned from

One of these is, to open, through the company's ships, at reasonable freight, an export trade to private merchants and manufacturers, ander specified conditions; and an import trade of returns in raw materials for our home manufactures, or to grant them bills at their presidencies, for the proceeds of their exports.

Ruffel's Short History of the East India Company.

t of the crown, founded folely on its prerogative, while the latter, esent company, derive their rights by actual purchases from the c, upon solemn compacts authorized and confirmed by acts of ament. True it is, that King William granted a charter of isoration to the present company: but it was a charter conceived in very terms of the agreement previously made with, and raiby parliament, and can therefore be confidered in no other light, as an infirument of investitues, islued under the great seal of Great in, in compliance with the letter of the act, in order to perpethe agreement, by incolment, (as all charters are, though all of ament are not,) upon the public archives of the kingdom, kept in High Court of Chancery, whereby to ellablifa, more firmly, if it possible, the tenor of the bargain, the origin of the incorporation, extent of the rights and privileges meant to be conveyed, and the ictions with which they were accompanied. In these imprerespects, did this charter differ from all others, that it was not one first ever granted by fimilar authority, but was free from every queition which had attached on others, because it forung from as all British purliament, and avas made in all things to correspond with it. far the learned * gentleman, who, in 1783, made fo light of ters, and of this charter in particular, by describing it as of to r value or virtue, than fo much " parchment with a bit of wax dangat its tail," had informed himself of these particulars, or whether eally confidered (as from the very high opinion we entertain of his e and integrity, we hope, and believe he did,) that the charter King William had been a mere gratuitous business, flowing, like Though the spirit of our laws, at all periods, declared that trade should be free, and forbad all monopolics; yet such was the inducence of prerogative, and the submission of the people to the early times, that it was not until the 21st James I. that all grants monopolics by the crown, were declared null and void by statute. and in that act is contained a † provision that it should not extend to companies or societies of merchants erected for the maintenance, en-

couragement, or ordering of any trade of merchandize."

What, therefore, constitutes the spirit and essence of a monopoly is, the having the fole command and power over fome necessary article er commodity, in the mode of its sale and disposal, whereby to enhance the value, and impose on the consumers an arbitrary price. Surely no man in his senses can pronounce this fort of monopoly to apply to the trade of the India company, either in theory or practice: for so far were the company from purchasing from the public, and the public from granting or legalizing any thing approaching to it, that it has, in the most poutive terms, enjoined every fale of goods by the company to be by inch of candle 1, or public auction, to the bift bidder. The practice at the company's sales has ever been strictly conforant to the law; and so far from the company, or any of the individual members of it, becoming monopolizers of India goods to their own aggrandizement, that upon a first scrutiny of the profit divided amongst them for fourscore years past, it will be found that their dividends, taken for the average of any reasonable period, have been sometimes less than, and never exceeded the legal current rate of interest mency, computed by the value or market price of their stock; 2 act, which alone affords an unequivocal proof, that what might otherwife have constituted a mercantile profit on the India trade (beyond the common interest of the capital employed) in the hands of individuals, has been funk in the reduced prices of Asiatic merchandize, and become a faving to the confumer; and thus have the public reaped the real profits of the India commerce, whilst all the risk has laid with the company.

There is also some advantage derived from the peculiar nature of the constitution of the East India company, beyond what would result were the trade in the hands of private merchants. The books are at all times open "for the admission of every description of persons who may desire to become members, and have money to adventure." It knows no distinction of professions, religions, or even sexes, and in the general courts there is the most perfect equality: every one present has the same right with another to speak his sentiments, and

^{**} See Statutes, 9 H. 3 ch. 30. 25 E. 3. ch. 2. 2 R. 2. ch. 1. 11 R. 2. ch. 21.

^{4 + 21} J. 1. ch. 3. s. 4.? 4 See the charter, and also acts, 9 & 10 W. 3. ch. 44. s. 69. 11 & 12 W. 3. ch. 3. s. 18 G. 2. ch. 25. s. 1. to 12. and other

[&]quot;The charter limits the lots to 1,000l. in value, (they rarely exceed 300l.) and abundance of lots are made very small, to accommodate individuals."

Russell's Short History of the East India Company.

us advice. A difference is made only in voting, which, when by the holding up of hands, requires 500l. flock, and when by 1,000 flock, for a fingle vote; 3,000l. for two votes; 6,000l. ree votes; and 10,000l. for four votes; which is the largest r of votes any member is allowed to possess; whilst 2,000l qualifies any member to become a candidate for the office of a corchairman. From hence it happens, that any person, withing bred to commerce, who has money, and chuses to adventure

is trade, has the power of doing it.

is admitted, that the old East India company might properly be ! Monopolists: for they were under no parliamentary refisition. the year 1684, their trade was declared, upon a trial with Mr. , an interloper, to partake of an unlawful monopoly. But it is al to observe, how widely different the state of that company was he present. They held their exclusive trade folely by a gratuarter from the crown. The present company hold it by pure said he public. The trade of the old company was managed by a committee, and the major part of the profits were divided ift * about forty perions. The trade is now managed by twenr directors, and the number of regiltered proprietors, partaking trading capital, is upwards of true theufond feven hundred, and ivate, or privileged traders, make at least three thouland more, behole who trade illicitly or clandestinely, and whole number is onfiderable, but whole conduct is not often ferutinized, because ht discourage the export trade, whereof illicit adventures chieff ; so that we may fairly compute on fix thousand persons who parof the direct beneat of the export, and of the fuff returns of the

ART. XVI. Poems. By Lady Manners. 4to. 11. 1s. Boards.
Bell. 1793.

Muses in the hands of our fair countrywomen; who touch it with a grace, an energy, and an expression, which confer honour on the art. Until lately, France carried away the palm of merit in semale poetry from our British dames, in the person of Madame Deshoulieres: but we think that we have beheld that ingenious lady more than once eclipsed by the inspired semales of England; more especially as the ldyll of les Moutons, on which she built the greatest part of her same, has been incontestably proved to be the production of an obscure poet, named Coutel.

In the poems before us, Lady Manners has ventured forth a candidate for a feat on the British Parnassus, and she will certainly be allowed a distinguished eminence on the sacred mountain. A vein of ease, elegance, and taste, pervades most of this lady's compositions; and, which has no small weight with us, her Muse is frequently enlisted under the banners of Virtue. The lines to her mother in Ireland are simple, interesting, and poetical; breathing, at the same time, a pleasing spirit of silial piety:

 Will she, whose kind maternal care Enlighten'd my untutor'd mind,
 Who all her joys with me did share,
 And to her breast each grief consin'd,

Accept these tears that freely flow—Accept this tributary lay?
'Tis all that friendship can bestow,
Or weeping gratitude repay.

Whether constraint my footsteps lead Amid a hated world, or free I wander o'er the russet mead,

My constant thoughts are fix'd on thee.

On Lehena's enchanting Icene
I muse, where we delighted stray'd;
The sloping hill, the valley green,
The lawn in brightest flow'rs array'd.

Say, dost thou in those meadows rove, Where Taste with Nature is combin'd?

Or dost thou haunt that silent grove, That charm'd so oft my pensive mind?

O may those scenes a blis bestow Which rural life alone can boast; And thou, dear friend, each comfort know Which by thine absence I have lost!

^{* *} The name of the writer's native place."

Lady Manners' Poems.

May sprightly Health with rosy lip
Breathe rich vermilion o'er thy cheek!
Light round thy paths may Pleasure trip,
And young Content with aspect meek!

May Science gild each tedious hour, And spread her stores before thine eye;

And Friendship, with refistless power, Repress each sad intruding sigh!

May Peace around thine honour'd head Her fairest olive wreathe entwine; Soft slumbers guard thy downy bed, And Hope, fond charmer, still be thine!

May truth and Innocence descend,
Their purer blessings to impart,

Bleffings that on thyfelf depend, Unknown but to the virtuous heart!

Yet, when thy circling friends appear, And greet thee on Ierne's shore, Devote one sympathetic tear

To her who fees thee now no more!"

e tales are not without merit, though fometimes of a which may be productive of a degree of lassitude in the . The maxim, ne quid nimis, should be often repeated frequently has the want of attention to it been stal to the tion of authors? How much wifer is it to let the world or more, than to cram it to satiety!

Lady Manners's Prems.

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Ye towering hifts, whose front sublime The misty vapour often shrouds, Whose summits, braving envious Time, Aspire to pierce the vagrant clouds?

Ye trees, that to the balmy gale,

Low murmuring, bow your verdant heads?
Ye lavish flowers that scent the vale,

Where rosy Health delighted treads!

Ye streams, that through the meadow stray
In many a wild fantastic round,

Or, sparkling, urge your rapid way
O'er rocks with hending offers crown'd!

Ye whitening cliffs, that over the main In dreadful majesty arise,

Whose dangers to elude, in vain
Too oft the trembling sailor tries!

Each varied scene, whose native charms
Excel what Fancy ever drew,
Where, shelter'd in Retirement's arms,

Contentment sweetly rests,—adieu!

And thou, formantic, firaw-roof'd cot, Whofe walls are from diffension free, The hours stiall never be forgot,
The happy hours I've pass'd in thee!

Where Hospitality presides,
And pours from Plenty's copious horn;
Where unaffected Worth resides,
And sestive Mirth gilds ev'ry morn.

O may they long exert their power, Long guard from ill this bleft retreat, And ever, through life's chequer'd hour, With smiles of peace its owners greet!

And may no blaft e'er rend these trees, Or spoil this garden's gaudy bloom, But the soft shower and gentle breeze Preserve its colour and persume!

Ah me! I must no more delay, For see the swelling sails in view; The wind propitious chides my stay, Romantic cot, again adieu!

There may be husbands (we have heard of such savages,) whose rugged and Sultan disposition renders them averse from the literary embellishment of semale minds: but, happily for Lady Manners, this appears not to be her unpleasant situation:—witness the concluding lines in her volume:

To thee, dear partner of my fate, This poetry I confectate;

REV. JULY, 1793.

Tatham's Chart and Scale of Truth, Vol. IL.

Nor will thy friendly heart refuse The tribute of an artless Muse, Whose strains could never condescend On Vice or Folly to attend; Could never vanity inflate, Nor offer incense to the Great; In which no line did e'er appear But as thy candid breast sincere. If they in aught have merit shewn, That merit thou may'ft call thine own-Since thou dost oft my thoughts engage Attentive o'er the classic page, While listening to the magic lay Whole days unheeded pass away; Since 'twas to please thy partial mind My pen to poetry inclin'd. And if the trifle should have power Thee to amuse one vacant hour, Let others to loud fame aspire, Thy praise is all that I defire.'

e fastidious critic might be able to point out, in the poems dy Manners, a pleonasm, an expletive epithet, and a c line: but the general character of a work can be no affected by such trivial discoveries, than could a picture bens or Michael Angelo by a want of correctness in the ng of a singer.

mot without regret that we find ourselves obliged to intimate a doubt, whether this chart will be an equally safe guide through the science of theology; a region which, notwithstanding all the labours of former travellers, still remains, in a great measure,

terra incognita.

To Dr. Tatham's general method of constructing his chart of theological knowlege, nothing can be objected. In order to arrive at truth in this branch of science, the theological principle must undoubtedly be first distinguished, and its proper mode of reasoning must be settled. With respect to the prineiple itself, it cannot admit a doubt that the Deity is the fountain of all truth, and that it is in his power to grant to his creatures certain discoveries of truth, which lie beyond the reach of their natural faculties, and to afford them a fatisfactory testimony of the reality of these divine communications. It will also be readily granted that, in the first stage of this supernatural communication, the person who is its immediate object may have the fullest evidence of its reality, by means of that direct imprefion from the Deity, called inspiration; and, in the subsequent stages, satisfactory proofs of such communications may be derived from human teltimony. Thus far the grounds of **heological science** are clearly stated in the present work. sequel will require our more particular attention.

When the reality of a divine revelation has been fully established, it still remains to be inquired, what are the truths which that revelation teaches, and by what methods are we to arrive at the knowlege of these truths? The answer to this inquiry Dr. T. next attempts; and he fets out with feveral politions which we readily admit.—The holy scriptures contain the whole form and substance of theological truth. In making use of these oracles of God, the act of reasoning becomes an act of interpretation, in the conduct and execution of which, the deepest learning, the maturest judgment, the ablest criticism, the most extensive information, and the purest virtue, will find ample scope for the exercise of their powers.' Systems and hypotheses, which have been the bane of natural philosophy, have been equally pernicious in theology.—What the author advances on this head is so just, and leads to such important conclusions in favour of his grand design of detecting the forces of error, and clearing the path to truth, that we readily

copy some of his remarks:

^{*} Systems and bypotheses in general, framed by philosophers out of the trown ideas divorced by an act of imagination from the truth of tags, were the bane of natural philosophy, and the prolific cause of the errors, which for centuries opposed the advancement of physical kience. Above descending to the drudgery of experiment, and the painful task of accurate enquiry and particular observations, for the principles

iles of physical truth, philosophers were pampering their geoial dulging their vanity in dreams and speculations of their owning. Hence, in their interpretation of nature, instead of finding a orld, the image of its author, they produced a number of imagiones, from the pregnant womb of fancy, as diverse from each as almost equally unrelated to him. And, to keep pace with interpreters of nature, their ingenious brethren the school shool instead of searching the scriptures by a grammatical, and truly l, which is indeed a laborious, examination, for the truths which very where contain, were as inventively but more mischievously yed in erecting similar schemes of faith and hypothetical systems into, as different from each other as abhorrent from the distance one interpret of one true religion.

one intriner of one true religion.

orrespondent to the genius of these air-built systems, was the employed about them. Logic, in these ingenious ages, distained up to the office of finding truth. As imagination could more vinvent, than reason could investigate, the task of finding truth lotted to the former; and logic had only to forge artificial weater its attack and its desence. It furnished both the philosophical reological champion with a kind of magic armour of such dexcontrivance, that the patrons of different theories could attack as an instance, that the patrons of different theories could attack as an instance of the content about them, with an equal show of conquest on side. And it was only just, that such easy and ingenious sylbould have such an easy and ingenious logic. Consisting of

movelties of words, and oppositions of science fallely so called," against which St. Paul has cautioned his disciples Timothy and Titus, as to warrant the assertion, that he foresaw the folly, and foretold the con-

duct, of the learned in distant ages.

And, what was more than all inauspicious to the study of theology and the pure interpretation of the word of God, from the prejudice of education and the prevalence of habit enslamed by the heat of party zeal, these fashionable systems and disputations warped, by an insensible contagion, the understanding of men of superior learning and sounder judgment; insomuch, that in their translations, interpretations, and commentaries of the holy bible, instead of representing the meaning of the original faithfully, critically, and candidly, they could not avoid giving it a colour of their own to favour the sect or dogma to which they were inclined.

Thus the study of physics and divinity, instead of being the just interpretation of nature and the scriptures, which are the works of God, became the invention and support of systems, which were the stabilitations of men: and the honour of the philosopher and divine confisted in a pertinacious and obstinate adherence to the systems in which they had been bred, and in standing forward, in the pride and sormality of a contentious logic, invincible champions in their defence; as a mercenary soldier is bound to sight and to die under the banner

to which he has engaged.'

The plan which Lord Bacon fo successfully proposed for the study and interpretation of nature, Dr. T. with the liberality of a true philosopher, recommends to the imitation of the student in theology. He applauds the conduct of those divines, who, having magnanimously embarked in the cause of truth, have attempted, in despite of the statutable and formal discipline, to emancipate reason from the bonds of sactitious system. What has been so ably begun in this theological reform, he declares it incumbent on the learned to pursue and finish:

It is time to turn our backs with shame on the fabricated systems and abfurd positions of artificial and hypothetical divines, who usurped or infringed the prerogatives of scripture, and to explore the Bible itself, that pure and genuine store, that inexhaustible fund of found theology: and, if systems are formed, to let them be only constructed on a scriptural foundation. It is time, in short, to change, to shut up, or to pull down, the schools, those monuments of ignorance for ages past. It is time to abandon disputation and altercation, which at best are useless and unprofitable, and, instead of contending about nothing for an empty bubble, to go hand in hand in pursuit of the genuine prize; advancing with modesty, with candour and discretion; and following truth not for the sake of triumph, but with an eye to charity. And, under the direction of such a leader and logician as our own country has afforded, we need not be afraid of pushing on our enquiries in the volume of nature, or in that of grace: if we do not examine, with too bold and profane an eye, into the deeper mysteries of religion; into that inner fanctuary, in which the Deity alone resides, and into which he has forbidden us to look.'

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Tatham's Chart and Scale of Truth, Vol. II.

e precise meaning of this last exceptive clause we do not comprehend. We take it for granted, however, that it meant that we should not use our best faculties in deterg whether revelation has any deep mysteries, and, if so,

they are.

e learned author next advances a polition, on which he to lay confiderable stress, that 'the holy Bible, in matter anner, is a book totally different from all others that ever or could be written.' Here we own ourselves conducted, on a sudden," into an unknown region. If the Doctor's on were true, it would be evidently impossible to understand efent revelation without the help of another, containing a al key, or canons of interpretation. Till we are better ind, we must take it for granted that the scriptures, having written by men in human language, though doubtlefs with divine illumination as their respective labours required, be explained according to the ordinary rules of interpreta-At first fight, this seems admitted in the sequel; where the r advises the theological student to institute an inquiry ine defign and purport of the written word; and in this he recommends the diligent and accurate fludy of the tive languages both of the Old and New Testament, and ally the latter; the neglect of the grammatical and critical of which he laments, with deep concern, as an evil

by which truth is communicated;—he thus proceeds to explain the analogical style of the holy scriptures:

Analogy is the inftrument of the Understanding, and forms that species of Logic, which is peculiarly appropriated to subjects of theology, in every stage of that sublime and extensive study. It is the indispensable vehicle, by which the divine truths of religion are con-

veyed to the view and apprehension of the human intellect.

In this dark and sublunary state, wedded to sense, immured in body, and involved in matter, of beings which are perfectly immaterial, and especially of God, that most pure and immaterial Spirit, men possess no faculties of body or soul, by which they can form any immediate conception. Between the visible and invisible worlds an impassable gulph is fixed, an impenetrable chasm, through which one ray of celestial light cannot directly dart. All our information of things that are divine must, therefore, be conveyed through an indirect channel: and, as we have feen human language capable of being transferred, by this Analogy, from material impressions to mental subjects, and of communicating the latter with certainty and precision; so, by a similar, but higher, transfer from things which are human, material or mental, to those which are divine, it is converted into an indirect, but certain, instrument of this celestial communication. Through the medium of this necessary expedient alone, we are rendered capable of receiving the mysteries of religion, which, in condescension to the apprehension and capacity of men, the Deity hath graciously and abundantly employed.

This Divine Analogy, so necessary to revelation, is founded, like the human, upon a similitude consisting in a permanent resemblance, and correspondent reality between the terrestrial things and ideas, which are the direct objects of the human intellect, and those celestial truths, of which it can have no direct conception: and it is expressed by transferring the words which stand for the terrestrial things and the ideas to the celestial truths; which words are to be understood in their plain and obvious, not figurative, sense. So that the comparison is founded on something real as well as similar; from which real similarity, as a principle, reason deduces a just and true correspondence.

By means of this, which forms the ANALOGICAL STYLE of Scripture, the eternal relations of the glorious inhabitants of heaven are truly and faithfully conveyed to us; those of Father, Son, and Holy Gbost; their actions and operations of Creator, Redeemer, Mediator, and Santisfier. All the other mysteries of our religion are, by this analogical medium, revealed to us, as far as the revealer thought necessary, by their correspondent names and terms, as begotten, proceeding, and innumerable others; to instance which, would lead me into a field of ample and interesting disquisition.

This language of analogy, thus real and permanent in its use, which forms the necessary style of holy scripture, however indirect, is clearly to be understood. When God is called the Father, in respect of Christ the Son; what the Father is to the Son here according to the law of nature, that God is to Christ by a supernatural generation. The word Mediator, in its samiliar use with men, means a person who, by interposing his friendly offices, reconciles those who

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Tatham's Chart and Scale of Truth, Vel. II.

variance; and it is substituted by Analogy to represent Christing, in a similar way, between God and man. And, though mer of his præternatural generation and also of his mediatorial ition be inconceivable by us, and perhaps inestable; yet the mobile fully and clearly informs us of his relation to the Father, at of Mediator, as clearly and certainly expresses this comtruth—that, as one man reconciles two enemies, so men are led to God the Father by the inestimable mediation of the

flead of giving men new and spiritual ideas of heavenly things, at from those they have by nature, and instead of using a spiritual ge or mode of communication calculated directly to expressivenly traths, (which would be to change their nature at once, make them different beings, contrary to the divine intention), halogy takes men as they are, and only transfers their words eas from earthly to heavenly subjects: by which divine and ful expedient, "the invisible things of God," in the pointed ion of St. Paul, are clearly seen, being "understood by the that are made."

identianding both fides of the compatition, which are equally eds of our fenfes or reflection, in human analogies, we can of the exact degree and proportion of the finilitude: whereas, divine Analogy, as we understand only one, that is, the earthly to cannot judge of the fimilitude at all. But we have an equimore than terficient to answer this defect, in the exercity of whose goodsees bath vouchfuled us the supernatural communicated whose without hath indeed it to be full lieut. Upon this

Tatham's Chart and Scale of Truth, Vol. 11.

so, it is very easy to understand in what manner, and with effect, this may be done:--but then, nothing farther apis to be afferted than that certain intelligible propositions, perning spiritual nature, may be delivered metaphorically; no one will question. If the author, however, be of inon, as he feems to be, that, by means of the analogical guage of scripture, new ideas may be communicated, and propolitions formed, the meaning of which would otherbe have remained unknown; and that these propositions, communicated as truths, are to be received as the myste-. Lef seligion; we own ourselves incapable of conceiving Where the whany such process can possibly take place. iple terms of a proposition cannot be distinctly understood: proposition formed from them cannot be intelligible, and sequently cannot be the subject of belief. If, for example, rare instructed that God is the father of Jesus Christ, and we lerstand that the term father is here used as a metaphor, we relude that God is, with relation to Christ, in some respect, at a human father is to his fon; — and, in affenting to this proition, we believe that as a son derives his being from his father, Christ, some way or other, derives his being from God: a propolition expressed thus metaphorically cannot teach us what manner Christ is derived from God; whether, for innce, by creation or by emanation. Before we can believe rist to be, in either of these ways, the son of God, we must lerstand what the terms creation and emanation denote, and £ be assured that the term father is used metaphorically to west one of those modes of communicating existence. When, refore, revelation is said to teach truths by means of a pecuanalogical style, if any thing farther be meant than that ological truths are taught in scripture metaphorically, we inevitably led beyond the limits of plain sense into the re-The theological fludent is removed from ne of mysticism. fober guidance of reason, and is put under the direction of e most dangerous of all preceptors, IMAGINATION; how gerous, particularly in the interpretation of fcripture, the tings of several of the Christian fathers, and of many modern husiasts, especially the Hutchinsonians and Swedenborgians, iciently manifest.

n the remainder of this volume, Dr. Tatham lays down as for the translation of the scriptures; which are, in the in, judicious, though sometimes a little encumbered by his aliar notion concerning the analogical style of the sacred in the then declaims, in a popular way, on the moral oblition of faith;—and lays open, in conclusion, the objects of suture inquiries, in which he proposes to apply this chart to

Monthly Catalogue, East India Affairs, &c.

nore full confirmation of the Christian saith, and to the openent of the causes of heretical and systematical error, e cannot conclude this article without repeating, in the gest terms, our general approbation of what Dr. T. very tly calls his new logic; in which he endeavours to teach ue method of discovering sound principles, and of arriving itimate conclusions, in the several branches of science; which (to use his own words,) his great object is, to lead to think and to judge for themselves, and not in the thoughts binions of others. It only remains to be wished that men use encouragement to do this, by being permitted to enin the noble contest for truth in an open field, and on L GROUND.

B. In our account of Dr. Tatham's first volume, we noted an overlight in saying that the first part of the r's plan was executed in that volume; for this first part, sing natural and theological science, occupies both the st volumes. The second and third parts of this important yet remain to be executed.

NTHLY CATALOGUE,

For I II I V 1800

MONTHLY CATALOGUE, Medical, Chemical, &c.

imphis Treatise on the Desence of England, by the late General mid. Dedicated to General Clerk. Illustrated with a Map of ace, shewing its former Boundaries, and the Subdivisions which the Coasts of France, England, Flanders, and a Part of Holland. pp. 187. 5s. Boards. Stockdale. 1793.

writer, who is capable of coolly projecting and planning the
to of the exterior provinces of France, and of applauding it as an finkice, and even of kindness to the country thus violently dis-

gred, may have some claim to attention in the court of a Rus-Prussian despot: but in a country which values its own rights. nects those of others, he can only expect to meet with——We Mr P. to finish the sentence, when he has farther considered the of NATIONAL INJUSTICE: 2 Subject to which the attention s age has, of late, been frequently and loudly called! so second part of this volume has been already noticed in our Re-

New Series, vol. ix. p. 209.

30. 'The History of France, from the earliest Times to the preit important Era. From the French of Velly, Villaret, Garnier, Meray, Daniel, and other eminent Historians; with Notes, crial and explanatory; by John Gisford, Esq. Vol. 111. 4to. Drury-lane.

ferring the reader to our account of the two former volumes of rork for our general opinion of its merit , we have only to inthem concerning the present, that it includes a very busy and thing part of the French history, from the year 1461 to the year , comprehending the reigns of Lewis X1. Charles VIII. Lewis XII. is I. Henry II. Francis II. Charles IX. and Henry III. Among rest historical events which it relates, one of the most memorable of the massacre of the Hugonots. The particulars of this horinfaction, an everlasting monament of disgrace to tyrants both ad ecclefiastical, form a curious but very shocking narrative: is the duty of history to record what humanity must abhor.

part of the work contains much less miscellaneous information rither of the preceding volumes. —The author takes great pains and the Calvinists with the reproach of sedition and rebellion; olds up, as objects of admiration and applause, that body which known to have for ages supported a cruel system of injustice ppression, - the French nobility: - whence may be pretty clearly

ed the bearing of this historian's political principles.

MEDICAL, CHEMICAL, &c.

11. A Cafe of Extra Uterine Gestation, of the Ventral Kind: inling the Symptoms of the Patient from the earliest Period of grancy to the Time of Death fiteen Months): with the Aprances upon Diffection. By William Turnbull, A M. F.M.S. geon. Folio. pp. 23, and 4 Plates 123. Johnson. 1791. case was read before the Medical Society, and is inserted in ird volume of their Memoirs. (See p. 279 of this Review.) Its

be the Reviews for February, March, and April, laft, p. 121. 403.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE, Medical, Chemical, &c.

is curious: but, for particulars, we must refer to the history, the plates by which it is illustrated.

2. Practical Observations on Cancerous Complaints: with an runt of some Diseases which have been consounded with the cer. Also critical Remarks on some of the Operations persed in Cancerous Cases. By John Pearson, Surgeon of the k Hospital and Asylum, and of the Public Dispensary, &c. pp. 122. 25. 6d. Johnson. 1793.

s is a judicious and useful pamphlet. Mr. Pearson justly points necessity of paying particular attention in order to discriminate in the real cancer and other resembling diseases; and adds subservations to enable his readers to form an accurate judgment important point of practice. For these, and for the remarks operations performed in cancerous cases, we refer to the let, which is well worthy of perusal.

3. Observations on Cold Bathing. By William Simpson, Surron at Knaresborough. 8vo. pp. 45. ts. Johnson, &c. Simpson has produced these observations in consequence of betely engaged in erecting a public bathing house at Knaresth: they contain a summary of the most popular opinious: g new was to be expected on this subject.

4. Observations on the Blindness occasioned by Cataraes. Showthe Practicability and Superiority of a Mode of Cure without an eration. By Henry Barry Peacock. 8vo. pp. 36. 1s. Pridden. anifeseed two ounces;—boiled in two quarts of porter, and thickened with linseed meal.

Art. 27. A Guide for Gentlemen fludying Medicine at the Univerfity of Edinburgh. By J. Johnson, Esq. 8vo. pp.74. 1s.6d. Robinsons. 1792.

If the students at Edinburgh be really in want of a guide to direct their studies, they will do well to look out for one whose assistance will be of more importance than that which is offered by J. Johnson, Esq.

Art. 28. Observations on the Small-pox, and Inoculation: To which is prefixed, a Criticism on Dr. Robert Walker's late Publication on the Subject. By Alexander-Aberdour, Surgeon in Aloa. 8vo. pp. 93. 2s. 6d. Elder, Edinburgh; Miller, London.

In Mr. Aberdour's criticism on Dr. Walker's Treatise on the Smallpox, are some pertinent observations: but as we have already spoken

fully on this subject , we do not wish to renew it.

In the subsequent 'Observations on the Small-pox, and Inoculation,' we find nothing to which we can particularly object. This is indeed negative praise: but we cannot speak more positively.

Art. 29. A Treatife on the Cataral; with Cases to prove the Necessity of dividing the Transparent Cornea, and the Capsule of the Crystalline Humour, differently in the different Species of the Disease; by M. de Wenzel, jun. Baron of the Holy Roman Empire, &c. Translated from the French, with many additional Remarks, by James Ware, Surgeon. 8vo. pp. 290. 5s. Boards. Dilly. Those who recollect the dexterity of the late Baron de Wenzel, and

Those who recollect the dexterity of the late Baron de Wenzel, and his success in performing the operation of extracting the cataract, will be pleased to read this account of his practice, as delivered by his son. This treatise, which contains many valuable observations, is rendered more useful by the judicious remarks of the translator.

Art. 30. Chirurgical Observations relative to the Epiphora, or Watery Eye, the Scrophulous and Intermittent Opthalmy, the Extraction of the Cataract, and the Introduction of the Male Catheter. By James Ware, Surgeon. 8vo. pp. 78. 1s. 6d. Dilly. 1792. Mr. Ware relates, in this tract, his fuccess in following the mode of

Mr. Ware relates, in this tract, his fuccess in following the mode of treatment first adopted by M. Anel in the disease of the eye, called Epiphora. This method confiss in injecting a liquor through the puncta lacterymalia, in order to clear away any obstruction to the passage of the tears to the nose. The liquor, which Mr. Ware uses, is water; which he injects into the lower punctum; endeavouring, at the same time, to prevent its return through the upper punctum by covering it with the point of his singer; while he occasionally presses the lachrymal sac in order to give the water an inclination downward.—This practice he has found to be attended with much benefit.

Mr. Ware next treats of the use of Peruvian bark in the scrophulous and intermittent Opthalmies: in the former of these complaints he agrees in the general opinion of its efficacy; in the latter, he can-

[•] See our 4th vol. New Series, p. 273.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE, Political and Commercial.

ak favourably of its effects, but prefers the exhibition of correplimate, (hydragyrus muriatus,) of which he gives every night a r of a grain dissolved in haif an ounce of spirit of cinnamon. next meet with some observations respecting the mode of sixe eye in the operation of extracting the cataract; in the perice of which operation, the author endeavours to show that no of skill is required in the affishant.

ly, we have the republication of a paper on the introduction male catheter,' which was originally inserted in the second of the Memoirs of the Medical Society, and which has already

under our review.

1. Thoughts, physiological pathological, and practical: with some and Anatomico-practical Observations. By Allen Swainston, D. at York. 8vo. pp. 240. 6s. Boards. Baldwin, see thoughts consist of cursory observations on a variety of dif-

Dr. Swainston's opinions are frequently judicious, but they

no peculiar importance.

POLITICAL and COMMERCIAL.

2. The Patriot: or Political, Moral, and Philosophical Repoy; confishing of Original Pieces, and Selections from Writers Merit. A Work calculated to differentiate these Branches of wlege among all Ranks of People, at a small Expense. By a ety of Gentlemen. Vol. II. 12mo. Containing 13 Numbers, 3d. Boards. Robinsons. 1793. recommended the plan of this work in our notice of the first

: See Rev. N. Series, vol. ix. p. 220. We have nothing to

the first refusals to discount bills, and occasioned the consequent dearth of ready money. With a second, it is the sudden absorption of capital for the public service; in which case a commercial nation can never break the peace to advantage, unless it have in hand a great surplus of hard treasure. With a third, it is the base jealousy of rival traders, a cry raised by these powerful companies whose paper-money is valid, to overwhelm the upstart banks, which were planting themselves in every market-town. With a fourth, credit is liable to periodical diseases, and this is one of them; timed indeed by the alarm, but not resulting from it. With a fifth, multiplicity of affairs being among commercial men the criterion of confequence, and trade being more honourable than leifure, many of our merchants and manufacturers are supposed to carry it on with a regular loss, and the consequent defalcation of property is occasionally to be assessed on the whole community by diffusive failures. With a fixth, it is no extraordinary crifis, but a symptom of prosperity; and, if embarrassments be in 1793 a hundred fold more numerous than heretofore, it only proves that our commerce has increased a hundred fold.

The writer of the pamphlet before us, with views more acute and comprehensive, analyzes the predisposing causes in our commercial fituation, which prepared this catastrophe, in order to prove that, if the war had not arisen, they would have had no necessary tendency

thus to operate.

The author concludes his elegant speculation, by recommending a speedy peace as the only palliative which our situation will admit. The attentive readers of this pamphlet will probably agree with us in classing the writer among the most ingenious and penetrating of our political pamphleteers; and in allowing him the merit of applying his talents to objects of public utility, and of the highest importance to the community.

Art. 34. Philanthropy repelling Delusion: or, a Retrospect of Society and Government fince the Fall; deducing from Sacred and Prophane History, how far the present System of French Politics is confistent with Reason, Religion, or the Benefit of Mankind, and these Kingdoms in particular; with a comparative View of the present State of France and England. By an impartial Hand. 8vo.

pp. 76. 1s. Evans. 1793.

The author offers this pamphlet to the public as a liberal and rational discussion of liberty and equality, and how far they could be beneficial to mankind, and these kingdoms in particular;' and he expresses an intention to devote the profits of the publication, if any accrue, to the relief of distressed orphans. We are afraid that his talents for national discussion, and for elegant writing, are not likely to yield much instruction to the public, nor any great benefit to a charitable institution: but so far as his intentions are benevolent, his endeavours deserve commendation.

Art. 35. Prospects on the rear and and are Paine. 8vo. pp. 68. 2s. Ridgeway. 1793. Prospects on the War and Paper-Currency. By Thomas

O; Rakoros Tirec is in in neur. An anonymous editor presents us with another work of Mr. Thomas Paine, written in 1787, during the interference of Great Britain in the internal affairs of Holland, and intended



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then been published, in case the French had not prudently overcertain little indignities offered to them on that occasion. The as two leading objects. The first is to shew that any interference alf of the Tory party in Holland can be of no oltimate utility to Britain; that the circumftances of Holland must for ever give s to her public conduct; and that true policy confile in making off of fuch natural tendencies, which, in the long-run, always better of the personal will of statesmen, and not in labouring This interference received, however, the cenerse them. g fanction of hostile parties. By this time, perhaps, are ness that he did not rife in his firength, careless of the popular ions of national vanity, and enter a protest in behalf of the light memy in the name of all the independent flates of Europe, and eternal interests of mankind. It was the moment to have fore ed of a principle, in the violation of which, in the case of Pond of France, the people of Europe, in direct opposition to their interests, have tamely acquiefced.

e fecond part of this pamphlet aims a barbed arrow at the paperof English prosperity, and, by the editor's good management, this
no doubt contemporary with the stoop of the bird, and may conto prolong the depression of its slight. The argument of this
eposes, however, on the false assumption that paper-currency is
us wealth; that Bankers notes are the baseless fabric of credatity;
at specie is the only real riches. It is important that the nature
see blurred shreds of paper be accurately understood by the
Be it observed, then, that, for every note which a Banker
he receives a deposit in hard cash. This cash he lends out to

of tar that he fixes his feathers: but the tar dries up, and the delineation remains. It is thus that he has done so much to banish from among the people the evil spirits of national antipathy, of religious bigotry, and of commercial jealousy.—We shall conclude with a short

extract, p. 28.

* Freedom in the subject is not a diminution, as was formerly believed, of the power of government, but an increase of it. Yet the progress by which changes of this kind are effected, requires to be attended to. Were governments to offer freedom to the people, or to shew an anxiety for that purpose, the offer would, most probably, be rejected. The purpose for which it was offered, might be mistrusted. Therefore the desire must originate with, and proceed from, the mass of the people; and when the impression becomes universal, and not before, is the important moment for the most effectual consolidation of national strength and greatness that can take place.

While this chaos is working, there will appear a kind of chaos in the nation; but the creation we enjoy arose out of a chaos, and our

greatest blessings appear to have a confused beginning.'

Art. 36. The Village Affociation, or the Politics of Edley. Containing the Soldier's Tale; the Headborough's Mistake; the Sailor's Tale; the Curate's Quotations; and Old Hubert's Advice. 8vo. pp. 62.

1s. 6d. Ridgway.

The conversations related in this pamphlet are supposed to have passed in a weekly assembly of Yorkshire villagers, under a large oak dedicated to liberty and political knowlege. The principal topics are, the hardships of the British soldiers, seamen, labourers, and mechanics, and the necessity of reform. Passages are read from various writers, particularly Locke, Trenchard, Tooke, Rous, Robinson, and the quondam Mr. Burke.

This very fingular affociation is not formed with a view of keeping the people in ignorance, but with the better view of improving their

understandings.

Art. 37. Falsebood, Paine, and Company, disarmed by Truth and Patriotisin, and a Dreffing to the Addresser of the "Address to the Addresser on the late Proclamation." Also, Friendly Caution to "The Friends of the People." Benevolent Retaliation, or Good for Evil; a Division of France into several free States recommended, &c. By Timothy Shaveclose, Esq. an Enemy to Biasphemers, seditious Levellers, and ambitious Hypocrites. 8vo. pp. 93. 23.

Owen. 1793.

From the title of this work, the reader will expect it to be rather of the oratorical than of the argumentative kind; and he will not be difappointed, provided he be not too classical in his notions of oratory. The author's epithets and figures are not, perhaps, exactly such as Cicero would have used; nevertheless, they are epithets and figures, and of an expressive kind. Witness the variety of characters under which the author of the Rights of Man is depicted; French Citizen Paine; Busty Paine; Freg Paine; Goliah Paine; the Staymaker; the Poor Cobler; Thomas Paine, who bedaubs whity-brown paper Rev. July, 1793.

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blacking brush, and who has, like a true child of the father of nowingly and wilfully written, printed, and published, a diafalsehood, with the same intention as that of the devil when he his lies, to do permanent and widely-extended milchief .- Witgain, the following animated profopoparia: 'Ye justices of the in the feveral counties of England and Wales! are ye not ashumed holden meetings without the leave of Citizen Thomas Paine? Is you, very properly, that your conduct sught to be meticed, honours you with his notice accordingly! Take care of your-Witness, moreover, the following pretty parenomasia: "The nd the fling of a gnat are unpleafant, but a mere touch annihilates sublesome insect, and soon puts an end to the pain.' Highly as lignation and contempt of this writer rife against Thomas Paine ie whole body of republicans, he professes himself a friend to nentary reform; and he fays, ' That a reform in the repreve system of this country is highly expedient, and indeed ne-; and that it must, at no very distant period, take place, no striot will doubt or deny. We may, therefore, rejoice by antion, at the happy accomplishment of this event.' He adds, proper time I will take the liberty to delineate a plan, entirely om dangerous confequences, and which shall remove the abuses t which every true patriot has justly complained."

must own that the writer's present performance does not en-

plan of reform. See also Art. 40.

38. A Charge delivered to the Grand Jury at the General

of the present war, and in defence of the propriety of negociating with the ruling powers of France, are diffinctly examined. maintained, that the conduct of the French was so insulting and threatening to this country as to render a war necessary; that it would have been exceedingly improper for the British government, after the recall of Lord Gower, to have tent an ambassador to France; and that every thing was done by Administration which could with propriety be done to prevent a war. Nevertheless, though Mr.D. thinks the war to have been unavoidable, he reprobates the continuance of it, longer than shall be necessary to compel the French government to abandon their romantic project of fraternizing all nations, and to confine themselves to the arrangement of their internal assairs. This country, (fays Mr. D.) would be to blame indeed, if, from the visionary prospect of conquering France, it was madly to engage not to sheath the sword till a counter-revolution was effected, and to reject, or not cultivate any prospect of an honourable peace, should the dispositions of the French councils tend to that point.'

A brief review is here taken of the rife and progress of the French revolution, and several capital errors in the constituent assembly are pointed out; particularly the felf-denying ordinance, by which they precluded themselves from being re-elected; and their not making some intermediate negative, or power of suspension at least, between the deliberative and executive parts of government. The argumentative part of these remarks would not have appeared with less weight,

had the author been more careful to refrain from invective.

Art. 40. The Ass and the Sick Lion; or the cruel and insulting Mercies of Thomas Paine, the Staymaker, towards the late King of France; exemplified in an Analysis of his Reasons for wishing to preserve the Life of Louis Capet, lately published. By Timothy Shave-

close, Esq. 8vo. 1s. Owen. 1793.

We can discover no other purpose for which this pamphlet was published, than to give the writer an opportunity of venting his indignation against the author of the Rights of Man, for-voting on the fide of mercy, against the decree which sentenced the late unfortunate King of France to death. The speech, which recommended it to the Convention to permit the United States of America to become the safeguard and asylum of Louis Capet, is trodden under foot with contempt as ' the staymaker's audacious nonsense;' and is execrated with indignation as an emanation of a wicked and distempered mind:the author is called a vile reptile, who has polluted by his breath the air of England; and Britons are required to blush, when they recollect that this Being was born a Briton.

Art. 41. The Antigallican; or, Strictures on the present Form of Government established in France. 8vo. pp. 160.

Faulder.

Faulder. 1793.

The example of France is here held up as a warning to Great Britain not to be guilty of political fuicide. The excesses and mischiefs which have been produced in that country, without any allowance for the peculiar character and external circumstances of the French people, are imputed to their present political system; and Englishmen are en-

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not to commence a plan of political regeneration, which must the in the destruction of order and virtue. Much declaration oyed in exposing the mischievous consequences of an equalizaproperty; and some pains are taken to assert the necessity of property the ground of the right of election for members of ent.

t. Remarks on a Pamphlet, published as Mr. Fox's Speech at the ning of Parliament, including some Observations on the Nature Causes of the present War. 8vo. pp. 83. 15.6d. Faulder.

le who agree with us in thinking that the speech here criticized eminent proof of Mr. Fox's wisdom and integrity, will not, agine, see reason to alter their opinion from any thing which ill find in this pamphlet. The writer goes beyond the immebject of his remarks, in a comparison of the resources of Great and France for the present war. Tables are given of the read expenditure of France from 1773 to 1793, of the deprecia-assignats, of the resources of France, and of its national debt.

2. An Inquiry into the Causes of the present Derangement of Public it in Great Britain. Occasioned by Mr. Pitt's Speech in the see of Commons, on the 27th of March last. To which is added, Hints to the Legislature for the Formation of a Plan for the imiate Employment of the numerous destitute Poor. 8vo. pp. 49. Robinsons. 1793.

shock lately given to credit has been attended with so many calamities, and threatens such alarming consequences to

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materials coming from beyond the sea, must, by the delay which war always occasions, and the high rate of insurance, be greatly increased; whilst, by the loss of the foreign, and the stagnation of our internal, trade, the manusacturers find it difficult to procure a market for their goods. In short, the whole system is disturbed; it is thrown out of its course; and the consequences yet to be dreaded require the union of all heads and all hands, if by any possibility they may be diminish-

ed, or in any degree avoided.

These observations are followed by a more particular representation of the inconveniences now suffered, and still to be scared, both by the merchant and the manusacturer, and, in their more remote consequences, by the whole community. As the most likely means of preventing the farther extension of these calamities, the writer recommends the exercise of a mutual spirit of sorbearance by those who have no immediate occasion to remove their property, and a rigid determination at present to issue neither notes of hand, nor bills of exchange, in any case, in which the provision for the payment is dependent on a contingency. Other seasonable hints, of an economical kind, are suggested, among which is that of employing the distressed poor in public works, and particularly in making navigable canals.

Art. 44. Remarks on the Conduct, Principles, and Publications, of the Affociation at the Crown and Anchor in the Strand, for preferving Liberty and Property against Republicans and Levellers. 8vo. 1s.

T. Evans. 1793.

If it were not certain that, in a free country like Great Britain, affociations of private individuals for the purpose of exhibiting informations, or instituting prosecutions, against their fellow-citizens, for what they may deem too great freedom in writing or in speaking, can be nothing else than *Ephemeras*, produced in a moment of political phrenzy, only to expire as soon as the phrenzy is over,—such a publication as the present might deserve to be recommended to the perusal of every Briton, as a full resultation of the principles on which some late associations have been formed, and a complete exposure of their proceedings. Referring to the pamphlet for particulars, we shall

quote the author's general conclusion:

Upon a due consideration of the origin, the progress, and the conduct of the Crown and Anchor Association, we may venture to affert, that it is a fociety which can deserve no countenance or support from any man, who is a fincere and enlightened friend to the liberties of his country. Under the pretence of maintaining and preserving the constitution, their conduct and publications are in direct opposition to its genuine principles. But it cannot be supposed that the deceptions, which have been employed to induce the people to concur in fuch affociations, can much longer be practifed with success. period is probably not far dillant, when even the lowest of the vulgar will discern, that depriving men of the freedom of the press, and of the freedom of speech, is not maintaining liberty and the constitution. It was not by affociations in support of the prerogative, or for extending its influence, that the rights of Englishmen were established. was not by an implicit faith in ministers of state, it was not by servility to courtiers or to kings, that England has been rendered respectable

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linguished among the nations of Europe. It was by the pretot the principles of FUBLIC LIBERTY, that this country atto its present greatness; and it is by an adherence to these prinunly, that its splendour and its prosperity can be continued.
ing political principles out of the question, this tract is evithe work of a man of sense, and hterary abilities,—well acted with the state of politics and the party-altercations of the

5. The Motives and Confequences of the prefent War impartially confidered. 8vo. pp. 67. 18. 6d. Pridden.

his well-written painphlet, the author undertakes to prove that efent war is, on the part of Great Britain, founded on good on justice, and even on the necessity of self-defence. The arts employed by Administration and its friends are here reduced a narrow compass, and are thus advanced into the political ith greater efficacy. The pamphlet is incapable of abridge-

All parts of it are not equally convincing: but if there be a n reconciling the public mind to the measures of Government, teaching mankind to bear individual sufferings for the sake of advantages, this pamphlet possesses such merit in a consider-

b. The preposed Reserve of the Representation of the Counties of land considered. By Robert Fergusian, Etq. of Lincoln's Inn.

pp 52. 25 Debrett. 1793.
s pamphlet confids of two parts: the first containing a sketch of love of representation in Southful; and the ferring treating the

zoology, required an order of animals which we have not been able to find in these volumes, and that is, the numerous family of reptiles; together with some animals of amphibious and ambiguous nature, not here to be seen. The tables of contents prefixed to the volumes preserve the classes in their proper order: but a general English index is wanting; and it had been well if the popular names had been given to the insects represented in the plates, as well as the generic appellations. Nevertheless, this is, on the whole, a compendious regular work, which exhibits the natural history of animals in a methodical manner.

Art. 48. An Essay upon Gardening, containing a Catalogue of Exotic Plants for the Stoves and Green-houses of the British Gardens: the best Method of planting the Hot-house Vine; with Directions for obtaining and preparing proper Earths and Compositions, to preserve tender Exotics; Observations on the History of Gardening; and a Contrast of the ancient with the modern Taste. By Richard Steele, late of Thirsk, but now of Sion-hill, (near-Thirsk,) in the County of York. 4to. pp. 261. 11.58. boards. White, &c. 1793.

Mr. Steele has prepared for his brethren two full catalogues of exotics, the one of abiding plants, the other of annuals and perennials, all marked with their proper diffinctions; and these catalogues are accompanied with brief corresponding instructions for their propagation and culture; which may qualify the volume to be a useful remembrancer to young gardeners, on undertaking the management of a stove and green-house, or to gentlemen who amuse themselves with such employment. We think, however, that his subjects might have been more connected, had he thrown the whole matter into the form of a dictionary, under one alphabet.

The publication is patronized by a respectable list of subscribers.

NOVEL.

Art. 49. The Conflict, a Sentimental Tale, in a Series of Letters. By M. Heron, Newcastle. 12mo. 2 Vols. 4s. sewed. Deighton. 1703.

A few ordinary incidents, which discover little invention in the contrivance or ingenuity in the arrangement, are here expanded through two small volumes, and rendered fentimental by the frequent insertion of violent exclamations. The chief merit of the tale is its morality, which is unexceptionable.

EDUCATION.

Art. 50. Reflections upon the Education of Children in Charity Schools; with the Outlines of a Plan of appropriate Instruction for the Children of the Poor; submitted to the Consideration of the Patrons of Schools of every Denomination, supported by Charity. By Mrs. Trimmer. 8vo. pp. 58. 1s. Longman. 1792.

To those who are employed in the benevolent design of superintending charity-schools, this publication, written by one who has much practical knowlege of the subject, will be exceedingly useful. It suggests hints concerning institutions of this kind, and particu-

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in respect to day-schools of industry, which, by mixing labour runny, well deserve the attention of the humans and public-Mrs. T. has provided a set of books, which form a course office particularly designed for the use of children in the iders of society. Some account is here given of this course, such we learn that Mrs. Trimmer does not comine her reliminated to the moral part of the scriptures. She afferts, rown experience, the it is as practicable to teach children onto of christian doctrine, as the plainest moral precept of the a New Testament; and the corroborates her opinion by the ty of Bilhop Horsley. Atter all, however, we must be also question whether those abstract doctrines which have pertied understandings of the learned, and confounded "the of the waie," be proper subjects of instruction in charity

POETRY and DRAMATIC.

- Stonebenge. A Poem. 4to. pp. 20. 1s. Robson. 1792. poem, inscribed to Edward Jerningham, Esq. is written with moothness in heroic verse. Some new combinations of words 1 it, as in the lines:
- How, and from whom, th' unperish'd dome arose."
- · And drops the cloud-hid turret to its bafe."
- " Commixt with bards who trol! the memory'd lay."
- I And Great shair well heard marries for shair fort?

Danes, it was not a temple in which the elevation of the misletoe was practised, this being a solemnity of the British and Gaulish religions. Probably, however, this ring of huge stones was not a religious, but a political place of assembly, the amphitheatre in which the Pendragon, or elective chief of the Britons, was chosen by the collected nation. whole construction is remarkably adapted to this purpose, if we suppose that each candidate stationed himself on one of the three or fix (for it is difficult to ascertain which) horizontal stones, which seem to have lain as lintels on the three or fix pairs of perpendicular stones originally surrounding the central altar; and that the mode of voting was, after approaching the altar, to walk under the porch or gateway on which the approved can lidate stood conspicuous. Two men below might conveniently count the persons passing through the porch; and the exterior wall of interstitial stones was well sitted to keep out a disorderly multitude. We would not, however, be understood to infinuate that poets, and all those who cultivate the fine arts, are absolately bound to employ them only in impressing opinions to whose evidence they have, on inquiry, affented: but when a work of art is not, as such, of any value, it is natural to seek for the object of the composition in the instruction which it may afford.

Mr. Kett of Oxford, whose juvenile poems were reviewed in our last number, has some elegant lines addressed to Stonehenge, which we had some intention of inserting in our critique, but the pressure

of other matter obliged us to omit them.

Art. 52. A familiar Epistle, on the Juvenile Exercises of the young Gentlemen in Charter-House. To which is added, a Token of Respect to the Memory of Mr. Thomas Sutton, Munificent Endower of Charter-House. Wrote on the anniversity Commemoration, called Founder's Day, December 12th, 1792. Together with a Card of Respect to a Lady, and her Daughter, on their presenting the Author with an elegant Assemblage of Flowers. By James Kenton, P. B. of Charter-House. 8vo. 4d. Risdel, No. 13, Crown-street, Soho. 1793.

The efforts of the juvenile Muse thould not be sternly repressed by the frowns of criticism. The vertes of Mr. Kenton contain some good sentiments, and good advice to the young gentlemen, but not many

of the classical graces of poetry.

Art. 53. Casino; a Mcck Heroic Poem. Dedicated by Permission to her Grace the Duches of Bolton. To which is added, an Appendix; containing the Laws of the Game of Casino, and Rules and Directions for playing it. 4to. pp. 32. 2s. 6d. Bell, Oxford-street.

This short poem of eight pages celebrates a new game with cards, our total ignorance of which we feel no kind of reluctance in confessing. The poem is worthy of the subject, and is followed by the laws of the game in profe. The author informs us that the knowlege of the game is at this time almost confined to the circles of fashion. We hope it will remain confined there; for very little ever comes from those circles, which the useful classes of mankind can learn without being somewhat the worse for their knowlege. For this reason,

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not object to this publication for containing no description of the lamiliar enough to instruct the ignorant how to play it.

4. A Meritory Address to Great Britain; a Poem in fix Parts. which is added, Britain's Remembrancer, &c. 8vo. pp. 319. Boards. Guthrie, Edinburgh; Button, Newington Causeway, don. 1792.

author of this address seems to have chosen the poetical form

espect to the maxim,

" A verse may catch him who a sermon flies:"

verse, in order to answer the end, aught to have in it something aptivating than a sermon; which mark of preservace we do not re in the present performance. It is, in truth, a long and rhiming sermon; wherein the age is solemuly reproved for its but without any ensive ning strokes of wit, or any amasing empents of fancy.

g. Hartford Bridge: or, the Skirts of the Camp. An Operatic e, in two Acts. Performed at the Theatre Royal, Covent den. Written by Mr. Peerce. 8vo. 1s. Longman. 1791. porary circumflances, incidents, and formes, are a common and ameable refource of the flage, especially in its lighter productions. summer of 1792, the camps which government thought proper oint were the refort of the indolent, the dissipated, and the every opportunity which the nation could defire of expending mey in public pleasures, and in private, was afforded. The of this farce has pourtrayed a part of this temporary frenzy of itching, and camp-visiting. We think the subject rich

page . The longs were before mentioned, page 458, vol. x. of our New Series.

Art. 57. Sprigs of Laurel: a Comic Opera, in two Acts. As performed, with universal Applause, at the Theatre Royal, Covent Garden. Written by John O'Keesse. 8vo. 1s. Longman.

1793. With universal applause? So says the title-page. Ridicule has rendered bombast in dedications less fashionable than it was in the last age; we hope its influence will extend to prefaces and title-pages. Sprigs of Laurel is a farce and an opera; that is, it has two claims of cultom to be improbable and abfurd, whenever it is convenient to the author. It contains, however, many strokes of true humour, fancy, and generous fentiment: but we are forry that its parts are fo disjointed, that it is written in fo flovenly a spirit, and that the author has fo little regard for accuracy and common sense, that he has either not corrected the prefs, or has been fo negligent as frequently to leave the text all but unintelligible. The pernicious spirit of encouraging national prejudices, and of teaching vulgar minds still to believe that the epithets French and English suppose vice and virtue, is so prevalent in this piece as to be extremely obnoxious. The politics too, for it dabbles in politics, are evidently not written from the heart, for the fentiments contradict each other, but from the paultry motive of catching applause, be it just or unjust, moral or immoral.

Art. 58. The Female Duellift: an After-piece. With Songs fet to Music by Mr. Suett; as it was performed at the King's Theatre, in the Haymarket, by his Maj. sty's Company from the Theatre Royal, Drury-lane. Svo. 15 Owen and Baldwin. 1793.

In the advertisement, the reader is informed that, ' for the leading character, and various incidents in the Female Duellist, the author is much indebted to Beaumont and Fletcher's comedy of Love's Cure, or the Martial Maid.' The manners of this piece are so little known to the English nation, or at least to the present age, that its effect either in the closet or on the stage cannot be great. Spanish lovers, Spanish jealousy, Spanish honour, convenient duennas, frightened servants, garden walls, romantic valour, bussions cowardice, extravagant revenge, duels, and disguises, form a farrago with which we are unacquainted, and in which we therefore can take but little interest. There is a jargon likewise in the language of this after-piece which the author perhaps might persuade himself was characteristic, but which it is very evident was the effect of indolence.

Art. 59. Neteriety, a Comedy. As it is performed at the Theatre Royal, Covent Garden. By Frederick Reynolds. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Longman. 1793.

^{· &}quot; Speriam' che'l Sol cadente anco rinasce:

[&]quot; Il ciel, quando men' luce,

[&]quot; L'aspettato Seren' spesso n' adduce!"

GUARIN. PAST. FID.

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ir readers will turn to page 160 of the present volume, they will criticism on the Dramatist, which sofficiently characterizes all ductions of this author. Notoriety, however, we are forry to interior to the Dramatist. The character on which it depends port, Nominal, who seeks same by rendering himself notorious, so happily chosen as the Dramatist; the motives which induce act are not so strong; and his eccentricities for that reason are bable. Many parts of the play are absurd beyond credibility a grand resource of the author is, an incessant watchfulness is no scruple as to the absurdity of the means. Could he his fables, persons, and sentiments, to order and consistency, il preserve the same animation, he would be a very soccessul and would no longer continue the bussion of the vulgar, the the malicious, and the pity of the wise.

2. How to grow Rich: a Comedy. As it is performed at the are Royal, Covent Garden. By Frederick Reynolds, 3vo. d. Longman, 1793.

Reynolds is still the fame man. We have only to fay that we he present piece superior to his Notoriety, but not equal to his tist; that his efforts to produce character are much greater and stectual than his attempts at sable; and that incongruity is the show he has yet to vanquish.

1. Songs and Choruffes in the comic Opera of the Armorer. As mined at the Theatre Royal, Covent Garden. 8vo. 6d.

the pad. The subject itself is slight, and the effect produced is feeble: but the fatire and the moral are just.

The Coventry Act: a Comedy, in three Acts. As performed at the Theatre Royal, Norwich, January 16th, 1793. 8vo. 15.6d. Robinsons.

Should the reader of this comedy expect strong emotions, of any kind, his expectations will be deceived. It is light summer reading, with a thin inixture of pleasantry, sentiment, politoness, learning, talle, and the manners of well-bred people. The author seems to consider himself as writing to a polite circle, and if he can amuse this affemblage, his ambition is tolerably well fatisfied. If this be the case, it is to be lamented; for were his ambition active enough, and better directed, we think it might produce much greater effects. The tone which he assumes is of a pleasing kind, but it is by no means sufficiently sonorous. He has many words but little passion: the true art of writing inculcates the reverse.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 64. A Selection from the Harleian Miscellany, of Tracts which principally regard the English History; of which many are referred to by Hume. 4to. pp. 571. 1l. 1s. Boards. Kearsley. 1793. The Harleian Miscellany, consisting of curious old original papers. has been for many years in the possession of the public; the selection here made is introduced by the following advertisement:

The scarcity and high price of the Harleian Miscellany, has induced the editor of the following work to offer it to the public. It is composed of a selection of those pieces which regard our own history, and which have been chiefly arranged in chronological order. The volume contains in quantity one fixth of the Miscellany, and the price of it is a guinea, only one twelfth of what the original work now fells for.'

The papers now reprinted relate to different interesting periods of our history; from the reign of William the Conqueror, down to the time of Bishop Atterbury.

Art. 65. A Trip to Holy-bead in a Mail Coach with a Churchman and

a Differer, in the Year 1793. 8vo. pp. 137. 2s. Law. The monopolizing system of policy, however convenient it may be to those who enjoy the benefit of the monopoly, is inevitably productive of mischief to the state, by creating and perpetually preserving entire bodies of oppressed or neglected citizens, who will clog the wheels of government with murmurs and complaints. It is so very evident that the only way to produce unanimity among the members of a state is to remove the causes of alienation, by suppressing, if possible, all those distinctions that, in the degree in which they afford elevation and privilege to any one part of the community, humble and degrade the rest; that it is surprizing to see enlightened citizens still adhering with fo much pertinacity to the narrow and irritating plan of exclusion. As long as this plan is held facred, differenters must be expected to rank, for the most part, under the reforming and antiministerial standard: but it feems unreasonable, and injurious, to infer that they are, as a body, hoslile to the government

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mment under which they live. The fact certainly is, that, wer folicitous to obtain a redrefs of their grievances, they are, perhaps a few individual exceptions, fleady friends to the Bronslitution, and to the prefent reigning family: this it appears the principal business of the present pamphlet to affert and to ith. In the mode of familiar conversation, the writer gives an ate view of the principles and political conduct of the difference thates the grounds on which they request a repeal of the test perporation acts; and he vindicates them from the charge of alty. By some of his brethren, he may perhaps be blamed for g individual censure where praise has been due, and for being wish of his concessions. Such a temperate pamphlet is, howevery seasonable, and may contribute materially toward the relos popular prejudices.

of. An Oration on the Discours of America. Delivered in adon, October the 12th, 1792, being three hundred Years in the Day on which Columbus landed in the New World: with Appendix, containing a Description of the City of Washing, in the District of Columbia; illustrated with an engraving. Elhahan Winchester. 8vo. pp. 77. 1s. 6d. Partions. 1792, ough we cannot bestow on this oration the praise of having suchly rivalled either the celebrated models of panegyric translations from the ancients, or the beautiful aloges which the magalic school has produced, yet it has the merit of bearing an rable testimony to a character of dislinguished same, the centred whose great discourse is certainly much more entitled to

civil and ecclesiastical. It is not a difficult task to find historical events, to which the enigmatical descriptions of this book may seem to bear a resemblance: but to prove that these events were the real subject of the predictions, bec onus, bic labor est. When we find that, with all Mr. Bicheno's acuteness, he is obliged in one place to understand by three days and a half, 105 days, and, in another by a thousand years, nineteen years; when, again, we find it still doubtful, whether by the angel pouring out his vital upon the sun, we are to understand the divine vititation of a great drought or excessive west, or the destruction of the Emperor, or of the king of Spain, or of Louis the Fourteenth, who took the sun for his emblem, or (as Mr. B. thinks,) the destruction of despotism in general;—what encouragement have we to hope for the developement of these mysteries?

Art. 68. The Military Magazine. To be continued every three Months. Small 12mo p. 222. 55. fewed. Egertons, &c. 1793.

Light yet profitable camp amusement for military loungers.

Art. 69. Short Rules for playing the Game of Cafino; by Robert Long. Lilliputian 12mo. 6d. Owen, Piccadilly, &c.

This publication is a rival to the poem on this subject in the prosaic part of the composition, as a report of the statutes of the game; and Mr. Robert Long is under the lash of that author's criticism as a salfe reporter. We do not attempt to interfere in a subject, which is confessedly beyond our knowlege: but we all understand truth and justice, and we cannot pass over an instance wherein both are violated to the prejudice of Mr. Robert Long. We understand, from each of these authors, that the score of the game is eleven points; the poet laureat of the game declares the lurch to be sive, and, in a note, charges Mr. R. L. with afferting the lurch to be six; now Mr. R. L. knows better than to assirm any such thing; he says simply six points gained save the lurch; which must be true, and saves his credit.

THEOLOGY, POLEMICS, and ECCLESIASTICAL AFFAIRS.

Art. 70. A Charge, addressed to the Clergy of any Diocese in the Kingdom. 8vo. 6d. Rivingtons. 1791.

This is a ferious call on the clergy to be diligent and exemplary in the discharge of their duty, and to counteract the influence of the dangerous decirines which are at present so industriously circulated, by the quiet insusion of principles which are calculated to render their countrymen sober, orderly, and happy. The writer states it, as the first duty of the clergy, to promote among the people a sense of subordination and quiet submission; and he speaks of an image of diving authority which ought to be reverenced in the person of the master, the parent, and the magistrate.—A sense of subordination is certainly very necessary to the peace of society; yet, in the name of all that is dear to man, let it not be that ignorant abject servitive which crouches under every burthen: but, rather, that enlightened conviction of the necessity of submitting to light and equitable authority, which leaves the human mind in full possession of its native energy.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE, Theology, &c.

t. An Address delivered at the English Church at Rotterdan, ions to the Thanksgiving Service, on Wednesday Evening, il toth, 1793, for the Total Retreat of the French, from the

ch ferritories. By John Hall. 8vo. 1s. Dilly.

define of an universal Providence, by which all events are d to the general good, is rational and sublime: but to imaspecial interpolition of Divine Providence, in all events which to promote the perforal interests, or to coincide in the narejudices, of individuals, is of the very effence of enthuhalm. ring of this fort we remark in the prefent address. The auifter drawing a dreadful picture of the confequences which were pprehended from the foccels of the French in their attack on d, (a picture in which, among other particulars, he comprethe total and irrevocable abolition of religious worthip,) confia deliverance of Holland, and particularly the prefervation of eriton of Williamstadt, as so fingular an interpolition of Dirovidence, that he is at a lofs whether to call it a miracle, or niracle. He adds, " Neither is this the only one which these ces have lately experienced. The prefent oftablished governins been twice prejerved from defluction in a very thore period e; first, by the providential entrance of the Pruffian arms, who to fave it, and now by the providential retreat of a French who came to deflroy it."-May we not be allowed, without ng any charge of impiety, to alk, would not the contrary , had they happened, have been as providential as those which re c lebrated?

2. To the Great and Learned among Christians, the Humble

rartly in hopes of fostening the rancorous spirit, which too frequently breaks forth among christians. He fixes the precise limit between christian faith and insidelity, in the belief of the resurrection of Christ. At this limit, the progress of our free inquiry, says he, must terminate; whatever tends to undermine this, must be regarded as impious. He rejects the inspiration of the scriptures, and confequently admits that they are not exempt from defect. We shall never, he thinks, be able to institute a satisfactory defence of the evidence of our religion, unless we not only interpret the scriptures by the established canons of criticism, but examine their contents with the most rigorous scrutiny, carefully distinguishing such facts as are certain from such as are probable, and such as are probable from fuch as are possible; weighing contradictory doctrines in the balance of reason; and, in our contests with our adversaries, knowing when to recede, as well as when to advance; what to doubt, as well as what to believe; what to relinquish, as well as what to maintain.

Free inquiry Dr. E. justly considers as the only sure means, not merely of discovering truth, but of repressing the persecuting spirit of bigotry; and he earnestly exhorts christians of different denominations, to regard the support of distinguishing tenets as of little moment in comparison with the mutual exercise of forbearance and christian charity. The pamphlet is ably written; and we have only to remark, that christianity is not much indebted to Dr. E. for supposing that it requires a certain limit to be set to free examination; its greatest boast surely is, that it can bear examination on every

point, and without limit.

A postscript is added, on a subject foreign to that of the discourse, -Greek Accents: in which Dr. Edwards controverts a position on the subject laid down by Dr. Bentley in his Schediasma de metris Terentianis.

Art. 74. Two Sermons, preached to a Congregation of Protestant Dissenters, at Blackley, in the County of Lancaster. 1. Shibboleth, a Discourse on Bigotry. 2. St. Paul's Farewel to the Corinthians. By John Pope, Tutor in the Belles Lettres and Clasfical Literature in the New College, Hackney. 8vo. 1s. 6d.

The doctrine of these discourses is rational and liberal; and the manner in which it is inculcated is judicious and unaffected. Intolerance the writer maintains to be in no case whatever warrantable.

Mutual candour and forbearance, and a diligent attention to the means of improvement in that moral merit which is the ultimate end of all religious systems and institutions, are the duties here, enforced. The sermons bear evident marks of an enlightened mind and a benevolent heart.

Art. 75. Tithes indefensible: or, Observations on the Origin and Effects of Tithes. Addressed to Country Gentlemen. 8vo. pp. 118. 2s. Cadell, &c. 1792.

The sensible tract before us contains a dispassionate representation of this invidious drawback from the labours of the industrious cultivator, by the bye-standing clergyman, who attentively watches all his motions with a keen eye to the produce of them. The subject is REV. JULY, 1793.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE, Fast-Day Sermons, Ap. 19.

ought by way of appeal before the good sense of the public however variously the respective writers may investigate it, it is uniformly the same; nor have the most subtile advocates claim been able to establish the reasonableness of it to the ion of any beside the receivers. Those readers, to whom the is interesting, may consult our ninth volume, N. S. p. 114, responding statement of the actual amount of the nominal y an ingenious writer who has made agricultural subjects his study. We refer the unavailing theme to the affociation of hire gentlemen.

T SERMONS, April 19. Continued: See Lift in June.

6. Preached before the Honourable House of Commons, at Church of St. Margaret, Westminster. By George Haac tingford, S. T. P. Warden of St. Mary's College, Winchestato. 1s. Walter.

as long been the custom for war and political preaching to go in hand; and hence clergymen, by the appointment of fall effects themselves invited to justify the conduct of rulers, imes this is a very awkward task, and it was never more so t present; we mean, as far as religion is concerned. The d Dr. Huntingstord, with some other preachers, on this occadraws a picture of French irreligion and atheism, and thence is a defence of the war:—but though we are persuaded that sing of a God and the existence of a Providence are very intruths, connected with the happiness of man; and though we with Dr. H. that to weaken the principles of religion is a

MONTHLY CATALOGUE, Single Sermons.

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their unworthiness, or the unreasonable extent to which they may carry their authority. This ferves to show the high duty and importance which; in the fight of God, are attached to loyalty and Submission, even when allegiance and protection are not—as they eaght to be—reciprocal.' Whatever opinion may be formed of the merit of this comment, the readers of the fermon must do Dr. Mayor the justice to own, that, on the whole, it is written with temper and good sense. After lamenting the necessity of introducing polities into the pulpit, he mildly states the several circumstances which have contributed to draw us into war: he then, like a true christian, prays for the bleffing of good government for our enemies, and for peace and happiness to his country.

Art. 78. Preached at the Cathedral Church of St. Columb's, Derry. By the Rev. John Hume, A. M. Dean of Derry. 8vo.

pp. 28. Douglas, Londonderry.

Against the Goliah of insidelity, the Dean of Derry thinks the christian may go out with sword and with spear. 'Of all the provocations to war that have, fince the world began, drenched the hands of the combatants in blood, I know of none more just than this in which we are now engaged, under this very appellation, that it is a war of opinions. We fight in defense of our reason, and what more rational combat? We fight in defence of our religion, and what more righteous cause?'

So Peter might have faid when he drew his sword: but one who knew the spirit of christianity better than Peter, and who wished that the battles of truth might be fought only with her own weapons,

faid to him-Return thy fword into its scabbard.

At Whittlesea St. Mary's, in the Isle of Ely. By George Art. 79.

Burgess, B. A. 8vo. 6d. J. Evans.

This fermon is of a very different complexion from the foregoing discourse, and from most of the fast sermons. The preacher's animated picture and condemnation of war does credit to his head and heart. While deprecating its miseries, he does not vindicate the infliction of them on the French by pronouncing them atheifts, but calls on his countrymen to forbear, in charity, to rank with the open reviler of God the great body of the French people. With the following

prayer, his fermon concludes:

· For ourselves, if in the part we have taken in this war, we are acting upon fair and honourable principles, and have no other end in view than the re-establishment of concord among a distracted and fuffering people, with heart and foul we pray thee, that thou wouldest grant success unto our arms! But if our motives thereto be otherwise than honest, and we have neither grace to perceive nor virtue to repent of our iniquity, in the spirit of that benevolent religion which teaches us to do unto others as we would have others do unto us, we implore thee, that thou wouldest abate our pride, assuage our malice, and confound our devices.'

SINGLE SERMONS, ON VARIOUS OCCASIONS.

Art. 80. Preached in Lambeth Chapel, December 2, 1792. the Confecration of the Right Reverend William Buller, D. D. Lord Bbz

Monthly Catalogue, Single Sermons.

Bishop of Exeter. Printed by the Command of the Archp of Canterbury. By John Sturges, LL. D. Chanceller of
Diocese of Winchester, &c. 410. Is. Cadell.

Insible and elegant discourse on the utility of subordination,
the necessity of discipline in the church. The latter topic is
arry considered in reference to the residence of the clergy;
seed to which Dr. Sturges remarks that there seems, in the
times, to be a want of sufficient power in the governors of the
to controul its ministers.—It affords some encouragement to
add of reformation to hope that this and other abuses, in the
sheal establishment of this country, will in time be removed,
he most judicious and respectable of its clergy have the candour
owlege them, and to express a wish for their correction.

. Preached in Lambeth Chapel at the Confecration of the t Reverend Spencer Madan, D. D. Lord Bishop of Bristol, on ity Sunday, June 3, 1792. By the Rev. Spencer Madan, L. Chaplain in Ordinary to his Majesty. 8vo. 15. Faulder.

general topic of this discourse is the benefit derived to manrom the inflitution of the christian church; a term which the very ingeniously makes synonymous with the church of Eag-After extolling the zeal of the church for the effential decand mysteries of religion, he pathetically laments the unhappy nee of schifm and disaffection:

e cannot but observe, (says he,) with the strongest regret, how not how warmly the passions of mankind are engaged, their tamployed, and their studies engrossed, by the discussion, the

Wrench, M. A. Chaplain to his Lordship. 4to. pp. 24. No

publisher, nor price, mentioned in the title-page.

On the topic of the falutary influence of religion on fociety, Mr.W. discourses with great propriety and elegance. Without having recourse to the current events of the times for topics of declamation, he advances many just and important considerations, to shew the necesfity of establishing public order on the basis of religious principle. We remark, in some pages of the discourse, a small degree of obleurity: but this is partly owing to negligence in the pointing; for feyeral fentences are broken into distinct periods, which, according to grammatical construction, should have been preserved entire.

Art. 83. The Character and Reward of the Faithful Servant, considered and improved. Preached at Bridgwater, March 10, 1793; on Occasion of the much-lament d Death of the Rev. Thomas Watson. By Ioshua Toulmin, A. M. 8vo. 6d. Johnson.

· As an honourable testimony to the memory of a man, who, according to the short account given of him at the close of the sermon, well deserved it; and as a practical application of an important doctrine of religion, expressed in simple, but animated language; this discourse is entitled to attention. Mr. W. we are informed, was the author of a valuable work on a Future State: see our Review for February laft, p. 235.

The Grounds and Nature of the Christian Ministry in the Art. 84 Church of Engiand Preached at Tiverton, May 9th, 1792, at the Visitation of the Right Rev. the Archdeacon of Exeter. Together with an Appendix, containing Notes addressed to both Clergy and Laity. By William Woolcombe, M. A. Prebendary of Exeter.

pp. 32. 1s. 6d. Rivingtons.

4to. pp. 3z. 1s. 6d. Rivingtons.

This apology for established forms of worship in general, and for the church of England in particular, is written with temper and modera-The author fees little occasion for ecclesiallical reform, either in the doctrine or ceremonies of the church, or in the method of providing for the clergy: but he discourages all violent measures with respect to the dissenters, and all attempts to encroach on the sacred right of private judgment. Several notes are added, chiefly on the subject of ecclefiastical revenue.

Art. 85. The Nature and Duties of the Office of a Minister of Religions Also, the Impiety, Injustice, and Absurdity of Persecution considered, in a Discourse delivered before the Congregation of the New and Old Meetings, Birmingham. Published at their united Re-

quest. By David Jones. 8vo. 1s. Johnson. 1792.

To soften the animosities which intemperate zeal and intolerant bigotry have lately occasioned, appears to be the object of this bene-volent discourse. While the writer expresses, in strong language, his abhorrence of that persecuting spirit, which gave rise to the cruel depredations committed in the late riots at Birmingham, he earnestly advises all Christian ministers, and people, to cultivate mutual forbearance and cordiality; to postpone religious controversies to a more convenient season; and to make a sacrifice of their private interests and prejudices at the shrine of their country's welfare. With due allo sance

CORRESPONDENCE.

ce for the circumstances which gave occasion to this fermon, it pronounced temperate and candid; it likewife discovers cone energy of thought and command of language.

CORRESPONDENCE.

· To the Monthly Reviewers.

ENTLEMEN, withfranding your declaration in favour of the decomposition of xed air, as established by the ingenious experiments of Mr. Tead Dr. Pearson, yet I am consident such is your candor and imp, that you will not think a page or two of your excellent work erly bestowed by admitting a few experiments and observations fobject, made fince November laft, and fince the appearance of rion's account in the Philosophical Transactions. In my first I confidered the charcoal found by heating phosphorus with causic e conclusive against the decomposition of fixed air; in my last t, sed you that the acid of bones heated with lime produced a fubimilar to that found on the decomposition of phosphorus with me; this substance I have since been convinced is truly charcoal, roduced by the action of the phosphoric acid on the animal char-the bones; which, with the charcoal obtained immediately from orns, I confidered as concurrent proofs of the truth of my poliat the charcoal found in Mr. Tennant's experiment was had from ofphorus, and not from the fixed air; fince which I have found e vitriolic, acid (and probably the other mineral acids,) is capable dving a small portion of charcoal, which, on faturation with etable or fosfil fixed alkalis, is deposited in the form of a light ce, perfectly fimilar, except in colour, to that found in the other nents;-that the fmall portion of charcoal held in folution by the

one grain and eight-tenths of phosphoric selenite; which, according to Dr. Pearson, consists of lime nine-tenths, vital air six tenths, and phosphorus three-tenths, of a grain; the quantity of phosphorus sublimed was equal to half a grain; so that the quantity of phosphorus destroyed was one grain and two-tenths. No light was visible in the tube during this or the two following experiments:

Eight grains of the same alkali, with two grains of phosphorus, (the intermediate space in the tube being filled with dry white sand,) were beated as in the former experiment; a bent tube, luted to that containing the subjects for experiment, conveyed the air produced into an inverted

phial of quickfilver; the following is the refult:

Fixed air contained in eight grains of alkali before Cubic inches.

4.4
Cubic inches.

Air expelled by heat, - 3.3

Fixed air remaining in the alkali after being heated, 0.2—3.5

Deficient, - 0.9

One cubic inch and three-tenths of the air expelled was absorbed by lime water, which it rendered turbid; the other two cubic inches, being mixed with a portion of vital air, exploded on the application of a lighted match; the charcoal produced was nearly as much as in the first experiment.

The last experiment repeated produced as under:

Cubic inches.

Fixed air contained in eight grains of the alkali,
Air expelled by heat,
Fixed air in the alkali after being heated,
Deficient,
O.6

• One cubic inch of the three cubic inches and fix-tenths expelled by heat was absorbed by lime-water, and appeared clearly to be fixed air: an equal quantity of nitrous gas added to the remainder reduced it half a cubic inch; the charcoal, washed and dried, weighed as nearly as possible eight-tenths of a grain.—The quantity of phosphorus sublimed in the two last experiments, being mixed with the sand in the tube, I could not value, but it was very small, as the heat was very gradually applied: but, supposing that in each of these experiments half a grain of phosphorus was sublimed, and the other grain and half converted into an acid by feizing the vital air of the carbonic acid, I conceive it would not only have produced a very confiderable appearance of light, which, I should imagine, is the constant effect of the combination of phosphorus with vital air: but it would have produced a quantity of acid sufficient (as I found by a previous experiment,) to have converted fix grains and nine-tenths of the eight grains of alkali into phosphorated soda; instead of which, the alkali, after the experiment, had lost only a ninth part of its alkalescence, and in one experiment much less. When I considered the quantity of air expelled, the small produce of acid, and the loss of phosphorus. I was induced to think that the decomposition of the phosphorus was affected by a direct combination with the alkali, (somewhat fimilar to the union of fulphur with alkali,) the charcoal being separated in the process. To prove whether they would unite in the humid way, I put eight grains of phosphorus into a phial with fossil alkaline lixivium, fo cauftic as not to render lime-water turbid; a moderate degree of heat foon brought on the appearance of effervescence in the phosphorus; phosphoric explosive gas was liberated, and the bottom of the phial was

CORRESPONDENCE.

the cifters of water in which the inverted phial was placed for the air, I cannot accurately estimate the quantity of phosphorus onded, but fix cubic inches and seven tenths of phosphorus onded, but fix cubic inches and seven tenths of phosphorus onded, and nine-tenths of a grain of charcoal. If the phosphorus in an open phial with the caustic lixivium, the instammable ides on its surface, and the charcoal becomes nearly as black Pearson's experiment; if mild sofil alkaline lixivium be used, the will be separated as above, but the air generated burns quietly outh of the phial; which seems to indicate that the causticity ne, and of the kxivium, are necessary in the formation of this gas. In the above experiments, I have endeavoured, as much ld, to exclude the presence of atmospheric air; though I am that I have not been able wholly to effect it; least the vital part tild be absorbed, and the acid formed therewith be imputed to air of the carbonic acid.

ing the course of these experiments, several others suggested es to me, which might possibly throw farther light on the subt which my engagements at this time will not permit me to pur-

must therefore leave the subject for the present.

'I am, Gentlemen, your very humble fervant, 'B. W.'

s. Norfolk,

intelligent correspondent must be sensible how important it is to a the identity of his light-coloured powders with charcoal; as Dr. a acknowleges that, even when caustic askali was employed, he d powders of this description, but found them to be different he black, and to contain only a small quantity of real charcoal, the supposter to be a second of the sensitive had

THE

MONTHLY REVIEW,

For AUGUST, 1793.

ART. I. An Essay on the Life and Genius of Samuel Johnson, LL.D. By Arthur Murphy, Esq. 8vo. pp. 187. 4s. Boards. Longman, Cadell, &c. 1792.

A fhould be recorded to the honour of literature, that, amid a variety of important political discussions and transactions, the death of a philosopher, who lived in an obscure part of the metropolis, has long attracted the public attention, and has so stimulated curiosity that every account of him has been perused with avidity. Some persons, with a peevish ill-nature, have remarked that Dr. Johnson is a comet with the longest tail: but the admirers of wit and learning, and the real friends of virtue, will rejoice in the celebrity which he has acquired, and will consider his growing same as propitious to morality. Mr. Malone calls him the brightest ornament of the eighteenth century. Of such a man, we wish to hear much;—and of such a man, therefore, we must not complain that much has been written.

Mr. Murphy brings up the rear of the Johnsonian biographers, with an account of the life and genius of his illustrious literary friend, composed with ease and elegance; in which he records, with much satisfaction, that he enjoyed the conversation and friendship of Dr. Johnson for more than thirty years; and he feelingly expresses the regret, which, to the present hour, the loss of such a friend inflicts on his mind. Writing under fuch avowed impressions, he is aware of the suspicion of partiality; and, with the view of obviating it, he well remarks that 's regret, he knows, has secret bribes, by which the judgment may be influenced, and partial affection may be carried beyond the bounds of truth. In the present case, however, nothing needs to be disguised, and exaggerated praise is unnecessary. It is an observation of the younger Pliny, in his epistle to his friend of Tacitus, that history ought never to magnify matters of fact, because worthy actions require no-Vol. xi. Сc thing. 362 Murphy's Essay on the Life and Genius of Dr. Johnson.

thing but the truth. Nam nec bistoria debet egredi veritatem, et boneste fastis veritas sufficit. This rule the present biographer promises shall guide his pen throughout the following narrative.'

To the question, why another account of Dr. Johnson's life, in addition to those already written, is now offered to the notice of the public, the author makes the following ingenuous and satisfactory answer:

'The proprietors of Johnson's works thought the life which they prefixed to their former edition, too unwieldy for republication. The prodigious variety of foreign matter, introduced into that performance, seemed to overload the memory of Dr. Johnson, and in the account of his own life to leave him hardly visible. They wished to have a more concise, and, for that reason, perhaps a more satisfactory account, such as may exhibit a just picture of the man, and keep him the principal sigure in the fore-ground of his own picture. To comply with that request is the design of this Essay, which the writer undertakes with a trembling hand. He has no discoveries, no secret anecdotes, no occasional controversy, no sudden stashes of wit and humour, no private conversation, and no new sacts to embellish his work.'

Thus modestly Mr. Murphy speaks of his performance: but though the labourers, who have pre-occupied the field, have been so industrious as to leave him scarcely any thing to glean, yet his Essay is not altogether without novelty; and the task which has been lest him, of giving a short yet full, a faithful yet temperate, history of Dr. Johnson, has been ably executed.

In the biography of literature and science, Stemmata quid faciunt? The pedigree of a philosopher can neither augment nor diminish his same. Socrates and Epicletus require no ancestry to ennoble them. Concerning the samily of Johnson, it would be alike superstuous and unamusing to inquire; that it was obscure, is well known; and, to use one of his own observations, it there is little pleasure in the anecdotes of beggary." Mr. Murphy therefore does not waste his time in endeavouring to trace with minuteness the well-known pedigree of his friend, but hastens to exhibit him, standing alone, great and illustrious; independent of ancestry, and of the adventitious aid of wealth.

The difficulties with which Johnson long contended, his flow progress from obscurity to fame, and from poverty to an easy competence, are well described. His present biographer apologizes for the uniformity of his narrative: but the publications of a writer, like the battles and sieges of a general, are the circumstances which must fix the several zeras of his life.

[.] The Life of Johnson by Sir John Hawkins.

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The political prejudices which existed in Johnson's mind were strong; and some little censure is due to him for his easy saith, occasioned by his prejudices, in the forgeries of Lauder. That he should have appeared before the public in company with this defamer of Milton, is to be lamented; yet his renunciation of all connection with Lauder, when his forgeries were detected, is only a proof of his having believed [a common weakness of worthy minds!] without examination,—not that he was an accomplice with the impostor.

Throughout this biographical Essay, the prominent seatures of Johnson's character are delineated with a masterly pencil, and the light and shade are well distributed. What was under-

taken is performed.

The following quotation from Horace is given by Mr. Murphy, as containing Johnson's picture in miniature:

> "Iracundior est paulò, minùs aptus acutis Naribus horum hominum, rideri possit, eò quòd Rusticiùs tonso toga dessuit, et malè laxus In pede calceus hæret. At est honus, ut melior vir Non alius quisquam; at tihi amicus; at ingenium ingens Inculto latet hoc sub corpore."

Subjoined to the account of this celebrated man, is a fuccince review of his writings. Here Mr. M. displays his own learning, judgment, and taste. The mention of the Rambler leads him to appreciate the respective merits of Addison and Johnson. His comparison of these eminent writers is a splendid part of his Essay, and is of too much value to be withheld:

The Rambler may be considered as Johnson's great work. was the basis of that high reputation which went on increasing to the end of his days. The circulation of those periodical essays was not, at first, equal to their merit. They had not, like the Spectators, the art of charming by variety; and indeed how could it be expected? The wits of Queen Anne's reign fent their contributions to the Spectator; and Johnson stood alone. A stage-coach, says Sir Richard Steele, must go forward on stated days, whether there are passengers or not. So it was with the Rambler, every Tuesday and Saturday, for two years. In this collection Johnson is the great moral teacher of his countrymen; his essays form a body of ethics; the observations on life and manners are acute and instructive; and the papers, profeffedly critical, serve to promote the cause of literature. It must, however, be acknowledged, that a fettled gloom hangs over the author's mind; and all the essays, except eight or ten, coming from the same fountain-head, no wonder that they have the raciness of the soil from which they sprung. Of this uniformity Johnson was sensible. He used to say, that if he had joined a friend or two, who would have been able to intermix papers of a sprightly turn, the collection would have been more miscellaneous, and, by consequence, more agreeable to the generality of readers. This he used to illustrate by C c 2 repeating

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tepeating two beautiful stanzas from his own Ode to Cave, or Sylvanas Urban:

Non ulla Musis pagina gratior,
Quam quæ severis ludicra jungere
Novit, satigatamque nugis
Utilibus recreare mentem.
Texente munthis secta Lycoride.

Texente nymphis ferta Lycoride, Rosæ ruborem sic viola adjuvat Immista, sic Iris resulget Æthereis variata sucis.

It is remarkable, that the pomp of diction, which has been objected to Johnson, was first assumed in the Rambler. His Dictionary was going on at the same time, and, in the course of that work, as he grew familiar with technical and scholastic words, he thought that the bulk of his readers were equally learned; or at least would admire the splendour and dignity of the style. And yet it is well known, that he praised in Cowley the ease and unaffected structure of the fentences. Cowley may be placed at the head of those who cultivated a clear and natural style. Dryden, Tillotson, and Sir William Temple, followed. Addison, Swift, and Pope, with more correctness, carried our language well nigh to perfection. Of Addison, Johnson was used to say, He is the Raphael of Esfay Writers. How he differed so widely from such elegant models is a problem not to be solved, unless it be true that he took an early tineture from the writers of the hast century, particularly Sir Thomas Browne. Hence the peculiarities of his ftyle, new combinations, fentences of an unusual structure, and words derived from the learned languages. His own account of the matter is, " When common words were less pleasing to the ear, of less distinct in their signification, I familiarized the terms of philosophy, by applying them to popular ideas." But he forgot the observation of Dryden: If too many foreign words are poured in upon us, it locks as if they were defigned, not to affift the natives, but to conquer them. There is, it must be admitted, a swell of language, often out of all proportion to the sentiment; but there is, in general, a fullness of mind, and the thought seems to expand with the found of the words. Determined to discard colloquial barbarisms and licentious idioms, he forgot the elegant simplicity that distinguishes the writings of Addi-He had what Locke calls a round-about view of his subject; and, though he was never tainted, like many modern wits, with the ambition of thining in paradox, he may be fairly called an ORIGINAL THINKER. His reading was extensive. He treasured in his mind whatever was worthy of notice, but he added to it from his own me-He collected, qua recondivet, auchaque promeret. Addison was not so profound a thinker. He was born to write, converse, and live with east; and he found an early patron in Lord Somers. He deended, however, more upon a fine talle, than the vigour of his mind. His Latin Poetry shews, that he relished, with a just selection, all the refined and delicate beauties of the Roman classics; and when he cultivated his native language, no wonder that he formed that graceful ftyle, which has been to juftly admired; fimple, yet elegant; adorned, yet never over-wrought; rich in allufion, yet pure and perspi-CHOUS 5

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cuous; correct, without labour, and, though fometimes deficient in Arength, yet always musical. His essays, in general, are on the surface of life; if ever original, it was in pieces of humour. Sir Roger de Coverly, and the Tory Fox-hunter, need not to be mentioned. Johnson had a fund of humour, but he did not know it, nor was he willing to descend to the familiar idiom and the variety of diction which that mode of composition required. The letter, in the Rambler, N°12, from a young girl that wants a place, will illustrate this observation. Addison possessed an unclouded imagination, alive to the first objects of nature and of art. He reaches the sublime without any apparent effort. When he tells us, " If we consider the fixed stars as so many oceans of slame, that are each of them attended with a dif-ferent set of planets; if we still discover new sirmaments and new lights, that are funk further in those unfathomable depths of æther, we are lost in a labyrinth of funs and worlds, and confounded with the magnificence and immensity of nature;" the ease, with which this passage rises to unaffected grandeur, is the secret charm that captivates the reader. Johnson is always lofty; he seems, to use Dryden's phrase, to be o'er-inform'd with meaning, and his words do not appear to himself adequate to his conception. He moves in state, and his periods are always harmonious. His Oriental Tales are in the true style of Eastern magnificence, and yet none of them are so much admired as the Visions of Mirza. In matters of criticism, Johnson is never the echo of preceding writers. He thinks and decides for If we except the Essays on the Pleasures of Imagination, himfelf. Addison cannot be called a philosophical critic. His moral Essays are beautiful; but in that province nothing can exceed the Rambler, though Johnson used to say, that the Essay on The burthens of mankind (in the Spectator, N°558) was the most exquisite he had ever read. Talking of himself, Johnson said. "Topham Beauclerk has wit, and every thing comes from him with ease; but when I say a good thing, I seem to labour." When we compare him with Addison, the contrast is still stronger. Addison lends grace and ornament to truth; Johnson gives it force and energy. Addison makes virtue amiable; Johnson represents it as an awful duty. Addison infinuates himself with an air of modesty; Johnson commands like a dictator; but a dictator in his splendid robes, not labouring at the plough. Addison is the Jupiter of Virgil, with placid ferenity talking to Venus:

Johnson is JUPITER TONANS: he darts his lightning, and rolls his thunder in the cause of virtue and piety. The language seems to fall short of his ideas; he pours along, familiarizing the terms of philosophy, with bold inversions, and sonorous periods; hut we may apply to him what Pope has said of Homer: "It is the sentiment that swells and fills out the diction, which rises with it, and forms itself about it; like glass in the surnace, which grows to a greater magnitude, as the breath within is more powerful, and the heat more intense."

Though all the biographers of Johnson mention his desultory reading, Mr. Murphy, we apprehend, has gone too far when he says that it may be questioned whether, excepting the C c 2 Bible,

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[is the facred volume to be excepted?] * he ever ny book entirely through.'—To take no notice of the which Mr. Boswell mentioned to have been entirely pery Dr. J., it should have occurred to Mr. M. that it was ble for his hero to have been a man of learning without sular perusal of many books. How could a knowlege of ceession of historical events, for instance, be attained, it reading history in regular detail? This cannot be acscaled by snatches.

lament, with Mr. M. that we have in this country no ny of polite literature; and we fincerely wish that some money lavished in the destruction of our species had peropriated to this more noble and more useful purpose, a detailed account of Johnson's table-talk, Mr. Bosust be consulted: but to those who wish for a more brief we of the incidents of this philosopher's life, combined view of his character and writings, we recommend this In the course, also, of our examination of Sir John ins's edition of Johnson's works, (Rev. vols. lxxvi. and) a concise yet copious account of the life and writings

great moralist was given to the world.

some measure indifferent. All the best or the worst affections or ms of the human mind, are to be found indifferently wherever tind are placed. As the active scenes of life may be supported ie healthful and vigorous, the virtues of equanimity, patience, fortitude, may be practifed by those who labour under all the inties of disease or a sickly constitution. As candour and humanity be practifed by the powerful, towards those who depend on ; so may the corresponding virtues of respect and good will be ised by the dependent towards their superiors. Although the of fortune are to those who possess them materials of beneficence. hey are not the sole materials, nor is this use of them limited to neasure or degree of the possession. The poor man who kindly the benighted traveller on his way, may have done an office of real moment, than fortune may have given the rich occasion to rm in any circumstance of his life. The greatest benefactors to aind have been poor; and the greatest benefits have been done by holding, not by lavishing the communications of wealth. and Epaminondas, even in times when poverty was frequent, distinguished among their sellow-citizens, by this disadvantage: he one, by his superior abilities, not only saved his country from ign yoke, but raised it to a pitch of glory, which filled the mind citizens with fentiments of elevation and of honour. From the originate the pursuits of moral wisdom, in which all the nations spoke the language of his country became so eminent; and to perhaps, we owe that we are now employed, not in gratifying a curiofity, in matters over which we have not any controul; but dying the powers of our own nature, the province in which they : to be exerted.

t was by with-holding, not by an easy payment of a triffing that Hampden laid the foundations of that political freedom his country now enjoys: And we may conclude, from the whole ese observations on the gifts of fortune, that they are valuable n the use which is made of them; and that the proper use is y valuable in whatever measure those gifts are bestowed or with-Providence, in our apprehension, has indefinitely varied the ons of men: But to an observer, who can penetrate through ft appearance of things, there is a condition common to all manthat is, a fit scene in which they are to act, and a felicity to be ed by proper action.'

om this extract, it appears that Dr. F., though a disciple e Socratic school, sometimes prefers the virtuous enthuof the Stoics, who exaggerated, to the science of the Petics, who methodized and confirmed, the doctrines of Aristotle had taught that external adcommon master. ges and accommodations were to be regarded merely as ments, which, without increasing or diminishing the of the artist, might however enable him more or less letely to accomplish his purposes. A good man would bewith equal propriety under every condition of fortune:

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but prosperity would be more favourable to the attainment of his ends, and therefore more conducive to his happiness.

The following most important observation is placed in a

ftrong light:

To this ground of distinction,' (of things in our power, and things not in our power,) which is laid by Epictetus, we may subjoin another, relating to the same subjects; but taken from a different consideration of them, that is, from the consideration of their value, whether real or supposed, which is in some instances absolute, in other instances merely comparative. Among things of absolute value, are to be reckoned chiefly the habits of a virtuous life, intelligence, benevolence, temperance, and fortitude; or, in short, the good qualities which form the best condition of human nature; and which they, who possess them, enjoy the more that others partake of the same blessings. Among advantages merely comparative, on the contrary, we may reckon precedence, and superiority, whether of riches or power; and, in a word, all the circumstances, in respect to which the elevation of one

is depression to another.

In a former fection, there was an attempt to account for the origin of malice, from an error or defect of understanding, in admitting advantages or disadvantages which are merely comparative, as principal constituents of happiness or misery. Under this apprehenfion, although a person were by nature disposed to benevolence, he is, by the interference of interests, checked in the effect of this disposition. And, among parties so stated, the celebrity of one being obscurity to another, or the precedence and preferment of one being degradation to the other, they are, in the midst of such pursuits, naturally rivals and competitors, and have more frequent occasions of hatred and distrust than of considence or good will. "The king +," fays Bassompierre, " after he had given the command of his army in Italy to his brother, bethought him how much the glory to be won in that service would obscure his own; and, so powerful is jealously, even among relations, that he took this fo strongly into his head, or rather into his heart, as to deprive him of rest." In this rage for comparative advantages, the success of one is disappointment to another; and the industry of one to better himself a scheme of hostility to those who must fink under his elevation.

From this source are derived, jealousy, envy, and malice, those waters of bitterness, which flow so plentifully in human life. The wretch, whose principal aim is to surpass other men, joins to suspence, hindrance, disappointment, mortification, and all the evils of a precarious fortune, the impossibility of extricating himself, without a total reverse of all his imaginations and thoughts. To become candid and humane, he must change objects of hatred and distrust into objects of good will and benevolence; and consider his seilew-creatures in society, as the procurers of much convenience and benefit to himself,

[·] Vide Ethic. Nichom. l.i. c. 10.

[†] Lewis XIII. and XV.

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ly as rivals and competitors, under whose prosperity or eleva-

nk he is doomed to fink, or incur degradation.

fy the mind of this taint, and most of the evils in human re done away. Desire would be placed chiesly on those nich are of absolute value; which any one may possess in the egree, without detriment to another; or rather, which, being offession of one, prove an aid to others in the attainment of

reputation of virtue, like celebrity in any other way, may nen in competition and rivalihip; but virtue itself is pro-The lamp of wifthe prevalence of virtue in the world. ghted by communication with the wife; and benevolence is n the fociety of the benevolent. Fortitude and temperance igth by example. Whoever can rest upon these qualities of value, as the constituents of happiness, finds no occasion on feel the unhappy passions which terminate in malice. He is in the welfare of other men; and wishes for their elevation ess and virtue, as he wishes for the rising of the sun upon the a common benefit to all who partake in his influence.

minus was happy, not in wearing the purple, nor in poffef. :hrone of Caiar; but in the attainments of a Ready and bemind. In these he was no man's rival, and was ready to ery bleffing, even with those who attempted to supplant him

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err, in deriving the corruptions, which are imputed to great courts, from the love of pleasure, and from the profusion of with which the love of pleasure is gratified. The mere y is innocent, compared to those who are deeply infected lice, envy, and pride; a generation of evils begot upon 1, competition, or the apprehension of comparative adwhether precedence, titles, or wealth. Wherever the such evil are planted, the concourse and assemblage of men, ch we should otherwise expect the practice and improvement focial disposition, but renders the growth of malevolence ious and rank. Competitors for the lustre of equipage and ght have slept in quiet, or enjoyed tranquillity, at their rea brilliant affembly, if the lustre of some other person had ed an eclipse to theirs; or, if his equipage and liveries had ared to surpass their own, and to carry away from them the of the world.'

eating of morals, Dr. F. examines the fystems which in formed to account for moral approbation or censure: irly the systems of Clarke, Hume, Hutcheson, and Clarke considered virtue as the fitness of man's chand practice to his own frame, and to his place in the... f nature; and as reason was competent to discern this he regarded the intellectual principle as the arbiter of d wrong, as well as of truth and falsehood: -but this

e his Recommendations to the Senate in behalf of Cassius.

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fustem is unfit to explain the phenomenon of moral approbation; which, being itself an affection or sentiment of the mind. must be fought among the considerations that influence the will, and not among the perceptions of mere intelligence. Neither Mr. Hume's theory, which places the principles of moral discernment in utility; nor that of Dr. Smith, which places it in fympathy; will bear an examination by the rules of philosophizing laid down by Sir Isaac Newton. In the connection of cause and effect, in contradistinction to a mere fortuitous contiguity of circumstances, there is a continual or inseparable accompanyment of one with the other. Wherever the cause exists, there must the effect exist also; and the converse:but, in opposition to this maxim, we shall find both utility and fympathy where there is no moral approbation; and moral approbation, where there is neither utility nor sympathy. As to utility, this is too obvious to require illustration; and in respect to acts of uncommon bravery, we admire them the more for being conscious that we ourselves could not have done so much. Although we are conscious that, in extreme indigence, we ourselves much have asked for relief, yet we do not admire a beggar. Although we sympathize very feelingly with the admirer of a fine woman, we do not mistake his passion for virtue;—and it is remarkable that sympathy should be then only equivalent to approbation, when we sympathize with the difinterested, the courageous, and the just.

Dr. F. agrees with Lord Shaftesbury and Dr. Hutcheson in regarding moral approbation as a specific sentiment, incapable of resolution into any other sentiment or principle. As nature, in the case of different animals, has superadded to the other principles of fensitive life some peculiar faculty of feeing, smelling, or feeling; as in the lynx's eye, the hound's nostril, or the spider's touch; as to other qualities of the loadstone are added the magnetic polarity and affinity to iron; so to the mind of man, over and above the powers cognitive and active, the Creator has given a power judicative, respecting the merit and demerit of character, dispositions, and actions, This difcernment of right and wrong is an ultimate fact in the conflitution of our nature, - a fact no way susceptible of explanation; and, being to a great extent uniform, it is rather a law than a phenomenon; and, as such, may serve as a principle of science to account for appearances that result from itself, and to direct the practice of arts throughout the departments in

which it prevails.'

Such is the theory of Dr. F., agreeing in the main with that of Hutcheson, Reid, and Bushier; whose opinions, if carefully examined, will be found, all of them, to terminate in the Platonic

Platonic doctrine of ideas: the difference indeed is merely verbal, Plato referring to ideas what these writers refer to the original constitution of nature. Their philosophy surely is preferable to that of Clarke on the one hand, and of Hume and Smith on the other; the former of which resolves moral approbation into reason, and therefore makes virtue a matter of mere calculation, independant of fentiment and affection; while the two latter, holding fentiment to be the fole primary source of all moral distinction, resolves, by a kind of logical chemistry elaborated by fophistry, the discernment of right and wrong into the pleasure of utility and the charm of sympathy. faulty explanations of a fact in nature do not, however, warrant the conclusion that the fact is inexplicable. Because moral difcernment has been erroneously analyzed by some writers, it does not follow that this faculty is incapable of analysis, and is to be held as an original principle, an element in the mental frame. Reason alone will not account for it: fentiment alone will not account for it; it is certainly different from any simple recognized power in our nature, whether of perception, fense, or judgment. The moral sense, however, cannot belong to a Being who is not susceptible of sentiment; neither can that be a moral agent, which is incapable of reason. The principle of moral approbation, therefore, is neither reafon nor sentiment, but a mixture of both: both combine in every virtuous determination, and both are necessary to denominate any determination vicious:—for every moral determination implies preference; and preference implies both defire and intellect; and every virtuous preference implies that the defire be right, and that the comparison be just. ference of vice to virtue, on the contrary, implies that the work of moral discipline is imperfect: but the more perfect that discipline has been, and the more complete standard of virtue we have in our own minds, the more correctly shall we appreciate the conduct of others *. Of Aristotle's practical morality, his divisions and definitions of the virtues, &c. the superiority is universally acknowleded: his theory, if carefully examined, will also be found of all systems the most unexceptionable.

In treating of the obligations and fanctions of moral law, Dr. F. observes that some of those fanctions may be embraced, whereas others must be lest to operate on the free will of the agent. Obligations and fanctions, which may be enforced, form the subject of jurisprudence; those, which cannot be enforced, form the subject of casuistry. In examining the prin-

[·] Vide Ethic. Nichem. l. vii. c. 3. et passim.

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eiples of jurisprudence, comprehending what are called the laws of peace and war, our author principally follows Grotius; acknowleging the law of defence to be the only just foundation for employing force or stratagem in the case of independent mations, or unconnected individuals. The Doctor's chapters on jurisprudence and casuistry will not properly admit of abridgement, being themselves abridgements of more copious treatises. The same remark applies to his chapter on politics; in which Montesquieu and Hume seem to have been his principal guides:—but his sentiments are more favourable to liberty than those of the last mentioned writer.—In proof of this aftertion, and as a farther specimen of the work, we insert the following excellent passage, which may be considered as a summary of the most important chapters in these volumes:

Men are destined to play in human life for manifold stakes of me equal importance. The merchant plays for profit, and is exposed to The warrior plays for victory or conquest, and exposes his life, Every one who would better his fituation in point of fortune, prefer, ment, or honour, hangs in suspence between the opposite events of success or disappointment. What was staked among the ancients, is their national quarrels, was of greater importance than is risked at war by the officer or foldier in any modern nation of Europe. captives or prisoners of war were retained in servitude, or sent to the market for flaves, the foldier exposed not only his life but his personal freedom also. This violation of natural law was enforced by the Romans in all their wars, and by the Greeks put in practice in their contests not only with barbarous nations, but even with one another. "During the Peloponesian war," says an eminent writer, " and for many years after its conclusion, all the different republics of Greece. were, at home, almost always distracted by the most furious factions, and abroad involved in the most fanguinary wars, in which each fought not merely superiority of dominion, but either compleatly to extirpate all its enemies, or what was not less cruel, to reduce them into the vilest of all states, that of domestic slavery; and to sell them, man, woman, and child, like so many herds of cattle to the highed bidder in the market." ("Theory of Moral Sentiments.")

they were a wretched people, there is reason to question the truth of any such inference. The fortunes of men do not always decide of their feelings. Cervantes, we are told, wrote his adventures of Dos Quixote in a prison; and, from so vigorous an exercise of all his faculties in that situation, we have reason to conclude that a person may be in jail without being wretched. The human mind gave similar proofs of selicity no where more conficuous than in Greece. And if human life be compared to a game, it was played among ancient nations, and among the Greeks in particular, upon a stake no less indeed than is stated in the above passage, of freedom as well as life. But their example should lead us to think that the spirits of men are not greatly damped by the risks which they are made to rus

he fervice of their country. The first citizens in every Greeign with this prospect of eventual slavery before them, took their with alacrity in the armies that were formed for the defence or macement of their country: And in no quarter of the world was military character held in higher esteem. Those nations, at the time, in other respects, carried marks of felicity superior to has ever been displayed in any other quarter of the world or age menkind. In their very language, there is evidence of genius, or insernal ability, superior to that of other nations. The order and m of their expression kept pace with the order and discrimination inbiects to be expressed, with all the possible varieties of relation, , with all the subtilities of thought and sentiment beyond what is maplified in any other known instance. They led the way also in forms of literary composition or discourse, under which the hugenius is displayed. Their poets, historians, orators, and milits, preceded those of other nations, and remain unequalled by that came after them. Their sculptors, painters, and archiexcelled those of every other nation; and the same genius which b towards every object, in which excellence or beauty could be ired or exhibited, gave also the most masterly examples of civil. tical, or military virtues; and, in the whole, gave the most irrerable evidence of minds no way funk by the fense of oppression, or resource prospect of hazards impending from the loss of liberty, or fear of slavery to which they were exposed. The ease and alacrity h which they moved on the highest steps of the political, the moral, intellectual scale, abundantly shewed how much they enjoyed that rand freedom, of which they were so worthy, and which they so risked in the service of their country. And if the hazard of **langs** which they staked in every public contest had at all any effect their minds, their example may ferve to prove, that men are not bappy in proportion to the stake for which they contend; or, perwhat is verified in the case of other players as well as in theirs, persons who are used to a high stake cannot condescend to play la lower; or that he who is accustomed to contend for his free. m or his life can scarcely find scope for his genius in matters of a per concern.

A warden of the English marches, upon a visit to the court of unlind, before the accession of James to the throne of England, it he could not but wonder how any man could submit to so dull a to as that of a citizen or courtier: That, for his own part, no day the past in which he did not pursue some one for his life, or in which himself was not pursued for his own. It is the degradation of the guilt of injustice or malice, to which the mind of man never the reconciled; not the risks to which the liberal may be exposed thesending his country, or in withstanding iniquity.

We are, for the most part, ill qualified to decide what is happy miserable in the condition of other men at a distance. The incontiences, which we see, may be compensated in a way which we do perceive. And there is in reality nothing but vileness and malice that cannot be compensated in some other way. Even those we call there are ampsed in the performance of their task, and, when it is

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wer, are observed to be playsome and chearful beyond other in They are relieved of any anxiety for the future, and devolve enture on their master.

We estimate the selicity of ages and nations by the seeming to utility and peace they enjoy; or believe them to be wretched un he agitations and troubles which sometimes attend the possessibility itself. Under this apprehension, the forms of legislature have proposed implying numerous assemblies, whether collective representative, may be censured as exposing men to all the interest of faction or party division; but, if these inconvenient tre to be dreaded, they nevertheless may be fairly hazarded, for take of the end to be obtained in free governments, the safety of beople, and the scope which is given to all the respectable faculties the human mind.

If we have not miltaken the interests of human nature, they can fit more in the exercises of freedom, and in the pursuits of a libe and beneficent soul, than in the possession of mere tranquillity, or we stermed exemption from trouble. The trials of ability, which mutually afford to one another in the collisions of free society, are sessions of a school which Providence has opened for mankind, and well known to forward, instead of impeding their progress in a saluable art, whether commercial, elegant, or political.

Under the last of these titles, more especially, we had occasion before, that the most important objects of human concern, and to most improving exercises of ability, are furnished to the members free state: And we may now also assume that forms of governments.

these volumes will, doubtless, have a tendency to increase it. As much of his philosophy is drawn from ancient sources, it is to be regretted that he is so sparing in citing his authorities. His predecessors, Grotius and Pussendors, over-loaded their works with learning;—Dr. F. has rather fallen into the opposite extreme.

ART. III. A Treatife upon the Authenticity of the Scriptures, and the Truth of the Christian Religion. 8vo. pp. 278. 5s. Boards. Cadell. 1792.

TREATISES in defence of revelation may be classed under two general divisions, popular and scientific. Of the popular kind there have been great abundance; and, after all that has been done in this way by Grotius, Clarke, Squire, Secker, Beattie, Priestley, and innumerable others, little room seems to be left for new attempts. Scientific works on this subject have been less frequent; and, notwithstanding the many excellent differtations and sermons in the English language, on detached parts of the evidence of revelation, we should be at some los to what English works, except Doddridge's Lectures, and Hartley on Man, to refer a student for a regular and systematic. arrangement of the arguments, with citations and references fufficient to enable him to take a candid view of the whole subjed, and, without any implicit confidence, to form a satisfactory judgment for himself. Such a work as this, fairly comprehending all that has been offered on each fide of this important queftion by different writers, would be of inestimable value. extensive erudition of Mr. Bryant (to whom we owe the prefent volume,) and his superior talents, might have enabled him to execute fuch a defign with great credit to himself and advantage to the public. He has, however, chosen to take the more humble character of a popular defender of revelation; and he has produced a treatife, which, though it contains a good geneal view of the leading arguments for divine revelation, has little to entitle it to a pre-eminence over other works of the same kind.

Mr. B. is very concise in his explanation of the grounds of matural religion. It will be thought by many, that the sew mages which he has devoted to this part of his subject might have been more advantageously employed in tracing, in a replar process, the proofs of the attributes and of the providence of God, than in depreciating the knowledge of the ancient philophers, and in censuring Mr. Pope for presuming to suppose that he supreme sountain of existence has been in effect, though with much mixture of superstition and absurdity, worshipped by the

Bryant on the Authenticity of the Scriptures.

the favage, and the fage, under the feveral names of tah, Jove, and Lord. In like manner, it will perhaps it, that, in exhibiting the evidences of christianity, the r has taken more pains to give an interesting representation the life and doctrine of Christ, and of the sufferings of slowers, than to determine, with precision, the application is ancient prophecies, or to give a correct and well-sup-diview of the circumstances which authenticate the Jewish Christian scriptures. It will not, however, be denied, that, is work, several parts of the positive arguments for revelate treated in a masterly manner; and that several ingestolutions are given of difficulties, which have been started the opponents of christianity. Mr. Bryant's view of the tony of Gentile writers in savour of christianity, and his sarison of the Christian and Mohammedan religions, are, a main, excellent.

nong the replies to objections, we find the following inus remarks on the difficulty arifing from comparing the iar characters of the negroe race, with the feriptural derivaof the whole human species from one common flock:

t has pleased God to give to all families, or nations, some parr marks, by which they are distinguished from their neighbours. hey differ itill farther from those at a great distance, in consec of the heat or cold which they experience, and the climate monstration, que le climat seul colorie les substances les plus intimes du corps humain."—For his opinion he gives very good reasons, from the situation and heat experienced by the different nations in these

parts.

The Egyptians acknowledged themselves to be of the race of Mizraim; and from that person their country was denominated. They therefore had no connexion with the people on the western coast of Africa, nor bore any relation to them. Now we are told, that the natives of the lowest part of Egypt were dark; and those higher up, and nearer the fun, darker; but those of the upper region approached to black and woolly hair. Hence this characteristic was not confined to any one race of men. This is farther proved by many of the islanders visited by our late voyagers, and particularly from the observations of Captain Cook and Dr. Forster. speak of a great difference in respect to complexion, stature, and hair, among people of the same place; which, they say, depended apon their being more or less exposed, and the particular diet which they used. This was observable at Otaheite. The latter writer says of the New Caledonians, -" They are all of a swarthy colour; their hair is crifped, but not very woolly; their faces round, with thick Lips, and wide mouths. The inhabitants of Tanna are almost of the same swarthy colour as the former; only a few had a clearer complexion, and in these the tips of their hair were of a yellowish brown. The hair and beards of the rest were all black and crisp, and in some woolly.—The natives of Mellicollo border the nearest upon the tribe of monkeys. The hair is in the greater part of them woolly and frizzled, their complexion is footy, their features harsh, the cheek bone and face broad." — Captain Carteret describes the natives of Remont island, as " black and woolly headed." He describes another island, where " the people were black and woolly headed, like the negroes of Africa."—Many more instances might be produced; but these will suffice to shew, that this difference of hair and complexion, and the other anomalies with which we find it accompanied. are not confined to any particular race of men; for they are to be found among people that never had any connexion with the coast of Gainea, or Negroland; on the contrary, they are as far removed from it as any people upon earth can be: whole continents come between.

The variation, therefore, in respect to complexion, sorm, and feature, depends in great measure upon the heat and cold experienced, and the way of life to which people accustom themselves. And there are other occult causes, with which we are unacquainted, and by which a variation in the species of all animals is produced. Hence it happens, that people, however distinct, become in time like the natives among whom they settle, however separate they may keep themselves. This is manifest, from a colony of Jews at Cochin upon the coast of Malabar; who came there, according to Hamilton, as early as the captivity under Nebuchadnezzar. Thus much is certain, the ara is so far back, that they know not now the time of their arrival. The Jews originally were a fair people; but those of whom we are speaking, are become in all respects like the Indians among whom Rsv. Aug. 1793.

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they reside. They consisted formerly of 80,000 families, but are now reduced to 4000. Mr. Bate, a clergyman, who had a fon in the East Indies, made application to have some particulars of their history. -" I wrote over to the coast of Malabar, to know what tradition the Jews have retained as to the time of their settlement at Cochin, but had no satisfactory answer. Ezekiel, the rabbin of the syna-gogue, did indeed send me a transcript of their copper-plate, hung up in their synagogue. 'Tis written in the Malabar language, put into common Hebrew characters, interlined with a literal vertion in Hebrew, with an Hebrew paraphrase upon that literal version. But I can find no date of their fettlement there; only a grant from a Malabar prince called Schirin Perimal, i.e. Prince Schirin, to allow them to settle there, with certain privileges."-Of these Jews he farther says, that "they are now grown as black as the other Ma-labarians, who are hardly a shade lighter than those of Guinea, Benia, or Angola."—And he very truly infifts, that " this is a discovery, which clearly proves, that the different complexions of the different fons of Noah may be occasioned by difference of climate, air, food, water, or other natural causes." It is said, in conformity to the account above, that the Portuguese, who have been settled upon the coast of Angola for three centuries, and somewhat more, are become absolute negroes. Of this we are assured by the Abbe de Manet, who was in that part of the world in the year 1764, and baptifed &veral of their children. He is quoted by M. de Pauw, who gives us this farther information.—" Quant aux descendants des premiers Portugais, qui vinrent fixer leur demeure dans cette partie du monde vers l'an 1450, ils sont devenus des nègres tres-achevés pour le coloris, la laine de la tête, de la barbe, & les traits de la physionomie, quoiqu'ils ayent d'ailleurs retenu les points plus essentiel d'une Christisnisme dégénéré, et conservé la langue du Portugal, corrompue, à la vérité, par différentes dialectes Africains."

The like is mentioned by Moore, in his account of the river Gambia. He takes notice of fome of the fame nation, who have refided for above three centuries near the Mundingoes, and differ so little from them, as to be called negroes. This however they refer,

though they are not easily to be distinguished.2

By an advertisement the public are informed, that the whole of the profits arising from the sale of this treatise will be given to the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel.

ART. IV. Medical Histories and Restedions. By John Ferriar, M.D. Physician to the Manchester Insirmary, and Lunatic Hospital-8vo. pp. 248. 4s. Boards. Cadell. 1792.

HAVING introduced the work by a judicious preface, Dr. Ferriar proceeds to lay before his reader several important histories of diseases; among which are forty cases of dropsy. A comparison is drawn between the merits of the three principal remedies employed, digitalis, cream of tartar, and Bacher's tonic pills.

On reviewing these observations, (says the Doctor,) which were made without choice, and with no predilection for any remedy, the sefult appears not highly in favour of the digitalis. Yet I esteem it a valuable medicine, and I have always found it safe, by attending to Dr. Withering's cantions. The melampodium, as given in the form of tonic pills, appears, likewise, to possess virtues that ought not to be neglected. I have employed the cream of tartar in comparatively few cales; but when their nature is confidered, and the surprising proportion of success allowed for, I think we may fairly rank this medicine in the first class of hydragogues. From what I have seen of its effects, I shall hereafter give it a preference in most cases of dropsy, to bring forward a larger testimonial of its real merits. Stronger conclusions may be drawn in its favour, from these cases, because they coincide with the experience of Dr. Home. Indeed, if cream of tartar be found to possess only an equal share of merit with digitalis, the former will deserve the preference, as possessing no deleterious qualities, and being easily managed by practitioners of the smallest judgment. In treating of this remedy, Dr. Home has formed a just and valuable distinction, between remedies which act chiefly as diuretics, and those, which at the same time, diminish the fluid effused in dropsies. I have been led to refer to this distinction more than once, in the preceding cases. The doctor's words are these. "We have found, that oxymel colchici, baccæ juniperi, &c. are much stronger diuretics, but much weaker antihydropics, than cremor tartari. We have seen, that it often neither increases urine nor stool, and yet that it cures." If this difference were more observed, some mortifying disappointments in practice might be avoided."

On the subject of dropsy, many other valuable observations are added.

Dr. Ferriar has paid confiderable attention to diseases of the heart, and his communication on this subject is important: but for its contents we must refer to the book.

We give the following extract respecting the muriated barytes, not because our opinion is unfavourable to the medicine, but because, in ascertaining the value of a new remedy, all evidence should be heard:

The high character with which this medicine was ushered into practice, induced me to order it in several scrophulous cases. It is needless to give a particular account of my observations, for I have never sound any sensible effect from it, even in doses of twenty drops, given twice or thrice a-day; excepting in two cases. There could be ho doubt respecting the preparation of the specimen I used, as it was a saturated solution, made by Mr. Cooper and Mr. Watt; and I was always attentive to its being given in distilled water. In the two instances where it appeared to do service, the good effect was not very remarkable. I cannot help suspecting, that the only benefit to be expected from it must arise from the action of the acid, either not completely saturated, or not destroyed as a tonic, by the mineral. Several patients, whom I now attend for scrophulous complaints, are taking the acid alone with apparent benefit, who had used the municated

riated barytes, without experiencing the smallest alteration in their health.'

The Doctor's observations on infanity are good, as are those also on hydrophobia. In his inquiry into the effects of digitalis in active hæmorrhages, he mentions four cases in which it proved of service.

The volume closes with an essay on the origin of contagious and new diseases. It was written for the Literary and Philosophical Society of Manchester, and may be perused with ad-

vantage by every class of readers.

ART. V. An Apology for the Freedom of the Press, and for General Liberty. To which are prefixed Remarks on Bishop Horsley's Sermon, preached on the Thirtieth of January last. By Robert Hall, A.M. 8vo. pp. 120. 2s. 6d. Robinsons. 1793.

(71TH the brilliant eloquence and the high spirit of independence, which distinguish Mr. Hall as a writer, the public are already acquainted, from the peroration to his pamphlet, " Christianity consistent with Freedom *." He now presents us with a spirited 6 Apology for the Freedom of the Press,' which is branched into fix differtations—on Public Difcuffion-on Associations-on Parliamentary Reform-on Theories of Rights-on Diffenters-and on the Causes of the present Dif-contents. To these is prefixed an attack on the Bishop of St. David's' fermon on the 30th of January 1793, before the house of lords; and which, it ordered to be printed by their unanimous vote, and without any subsequent protest, must be understood to express the opinions of one of the constituted authorities. The divine right of the chief magistrate, and the doctrine of passive obedience, have been, for nearly two centuries, an unfailing topic of dispute in this country between the effablished and sectarian schools of religion; and they are likely to continue so, till a repeal of the act of uniformity shall have rendered it equally the interest of all christian ministers to inculcate the duty of habitual but not unqualified obedience. Then, perhaps, the heretical may acknowlege, notwithstanding the argumentative fermon of Gordon and Trenchard, that the language of the apostles advises non-resistance more pointedly than the friends of liberty are apt to wish; and the orthodox may concede, notwithstanding the unbroken chain of episcopal testimony, that the conduct of Jesus in the temple demonstrates the founder of christianity to have entertained the bolder opi-The preface, which is occupied by this discussion, terminates in a style of great animation.

[·] See Rev. New Series, vol. vi. p. 3,0.

Mr. Hall then proceeds to shew, that, to render the magi-Arate a judge of truth, and to engage his authority in the suppreffion of opinions, betrays an inattention to the nature and defign of political fociety; that when a nation forms a government, it is not wildom but power which they place in the hands of the magistrate; whence it follows, that his concern is only with those objects on which power can operate. He maintains, that free inquiry must issue in the firmer establishment of truth; that government is the creature of the people, and that which they have created they have furely a right to examine; that, if it be a crime in a subject of Britain to express his disapprobation of that form of government under which he lives, the same conduct must, by parity of reasoning, be condemned in the inhabitant of any other country; which would be to bar improvement every where; and, lastly, that an inquiry concerning the comparative excellence of civil constitutions has no tendency to sedition and anarchy. It may be added, that, if the people be prevented from taking into confideration a Constitutional Reform, and te suffered only to interfere with the organization of the House of Commons, they must adopt principles much more democratic to secure a due weight for their own scale of the constitution, than if allowed to investigate and to pursue the means of diminishing the counteraction of the other powers: fo that the bolder discussion leads to the more temperate innova-This would have been a convenient place for suggesting fuch farther improvements as the law of libel may require: for instance, that all prosecutions for libel be by action for damages; that if an action be not brought within twelve months after publication, the crime shall have prescribed; that to subfantiate the truth of an accusation, shall, as in North America, be pleadable in mitigation of damages, &c.

The chapter on Associations is written with great vivacity, and might have been introduced with the words of Tacitus: Sicut vetus ætas vidit quid ultimum in libertate esset, ita nos quid in servitute; adempto per inquisitiones & loquendi audiendique commercio. The observations which it contains, we are persuaded, would have great effect in dispersing these holy brotherhoods, if any thing more were necessary: but the war being considered as the consequence of their encouragement, they are dissolving beneath the frowns of bankrupt tradesmen, and the

murmurs of multiplying indigence.

The third section, which treats of Parliamentary Reform, will be attentively perused by every friend to the progressive improvement of the constitution. Mr. Hall makes many important theoretical remarks, and declares for annual parliaments.

Hall's Apology for the Freedom of the Prefs.

xt occur observations on Theories and the Rights of Man; is this subject is yet far from being clear, (the more lucid igations of it having only brought us nearer to the theory bbes,) it may be well to extract some of the best remarks s topic:

s government implies restraint, it is plain a portion of our m is given up by entering into it; the only question can then ow far this resignation extends, whether to a part or to the? This point may, perhaps, be determined by the following ions:

The advantages that civil power can procure to a community rial. A small part, in comparison of the condition of man, can thin its influence. Allowing it to be a rational institution, it have that end in view which a reasonable man would propose pointing it; nor can it imply any greater facrifice than is strictly ary to its attainment. But on what account is it requists to in political society? Plainly to guard against the injury of; for were there no injustice among mankind, no protection be needed, no public force necessary; every man might be left to restraint or controul. The attainment of all possible good inst the purpose of laws, but to secure us from external injury olence; and as the means must be proportioned to the end, it and to suppose, by submitting to civil power, with a view to particular benefits, we should be understood to hold all our adges dependent upon that authority. Civil restraints imply nomore than a surrender of our liberty in some points, in order to

presieve, unless it has receded from its first form and model. power can never exceed its limits, until it deviates into a new track. For if every portion of natural freedom be given up by yielding to civil authority, we can never claim any other liberties than those precise ones which were ascertained in its first formation. The vassals of despotism may complain, perhaps, of the hardships which they suffer, but unless it appear they are of a new kind, no injury is done them, for no right is violated. Rights are either natural or artificial; the first cannot be pleaded after they are relinquished, and the second cannot be impaired but by a departure from ancient precedents. If a man should be unfortunate enough to live under the dominion of a prince, who, like the monarchs of Persia, could murder his subjects at will, he may be unhappy, but cannot complain; for, on Mr. Hey's theory, he never had any rights but what were created by fociety; and, on Mr. Burke's, he has for ever relinquished them. The claims of nature being fet aside, and the constitution of the government despotic from the beginning, his misery involves no injustice, and admits of no remedy. It requires little discernment to see that this theory rivets the chains of despotism, and shuts out from the political world the smallest glimpse of emancipation or improvement. Its language is, he that is a slave let him be a slave still.

7. It is incumbent on Mr. Burke and his followers, to ascertain the time when natural rights are relinquished. Mr. Hey is content with tracing their existence to society, while Mr. Burke, more moderate of the two, admitting their foundation in nature, only contends that regular government absorbs and swallows them up, bestowing artificial advantages in exchange. But at what period, it may be enquired, shall we date this wonderful revolution in the social condition of man? If we say it was as early as the first dawn of society, natural liberty had never any existence at all, since there are no traces. even in tradition, of a period when men were utterly unconnected with each other. If we fay this complete furrender took place with the first rudiments of law and government in every particular community, on what principle were subsequent improvements introduced? Mr. Burke is fond of resting our liberties on Magna Charta and the Bill of Rights; but he ought to remember, that as they do not carry us to the commencement of our government, which was established ages before, our forefathers had long ago refigned their natural liberty. If those famous stipulations only recognized such privileges as were in force before, they have no claim to be considered as the foundations of our constitution; but if they formed an era in the annals of freedom, they must have been erected on the basis of those natural rights which Mr. Burke ridicules and explodes. When our ancestors made those demands, it is evident they did not suppose an appeal to the rights of nature precluded. Every step a civilized nation can take towards a more equal administration, is either an affertion of its natural liberty, or a criminal encroachment on just authority. The influence of government on the flock of natural rights, may be compared to that of a manufactory on the rude produce; it adds nothing to its quantity, but only qualifies and fits it for use. Political arrangement is more or less perfect in proportion as it enables us to exert our natural li-Dd4

Lylons's Environs of London.

the greatest advantage; if it is diverted to any other purpose, the instrument of gratifying the passions of a few, or imposes restraint than its object prescribes, it degenerates into tyranny resson.

fection on Distinters is composed with vigour: it offers not novel remarks on their history, and repeats the proarguments against the subsisting alliance between church te.

Hall's work terminates with a differention on the of the prefent Discontents; which has the merit of trating into one focus several of the leading topics of distinon; they are such only as are capable of redress under sling constitution of the country, and therefore they can used without any danger to public tranquillity.

vere easy to prolong this summary view of the present let, by copious extracts and miscellaneous comments; it is one of those publications which must be perused by a take any decided interest in the political scenes of the vessel sometiment ourselves with recommending it no less let than for matter; its liveliness will interest; although, y, some will think it too declamatory, while others may it too much expanded.

VI The Frances of Leaders being an Historical Account of

population, and the biography connected with each parish; are the principal objects of the following work.'

This not being a county but a circumlocal history, if we may venture such a coinage, regarding the metropolis as a central point, it will have a natural affinity with the history of London, the centre on which it moves; and as all the places described are in the neighbourhood of the court, many anecdotes of perfons and facts connected with English history will necessarily occur. These indeed will naturally intervene in a desultory manner; and a specimen or two may shew the variety which is to be expected.

Under the article Battersea, we are informed, that

· Above three hundred acres of land in the parish of Battersca are occupied by the market-gardeners, of whom there are about twenty who rent from five or fix, to near fixty acres each. These gardeners employ, in the summer season, a considerable number of labourers, though perhaps not so many as is generally supposed; on an average, I am informed, not one to an acre. The wages of the men are from sen to twelve, of the women from five to seven, shillings by the week. Most of the women travel on foot from Shropshire and North Wales in the spring; and, as they live at a very cheap rate, many of them return to their own country much richer than when they left it. The soil of the ground occupied by the gardeners is sandy, and requires a The vegetables which they raise, are in general great deal of rain. very fine; their cabbages and asparagus, particularly, have acquired Fuller, who wrote in the year 1660, speaking of the garcelebrity. dens in Surrey, fays, "Gardening was first brought into England for profit, about seventy years ago; before which we setehed most of our cherries from Holland, apples from France, and had hardly a mess of rath + ripe peas but from Holland, which were dainties for ladies, they came so far, and cost so dear. Since, gardening hath crept out of Holland, to Sandwich, Kent, and thence to Surrey, where, though they have given 61. an acre and upwards, they have made their rent, lived comfortably, and fet many people on work. Oh, the incredible profit by digging of the ground! for though it be confessed, that the plough beats the spade out of distance for speed, (almost as much as the press beats the pen,) yet what the spade wants in the quantity of the ground it manureth, it recompenceth with the plenty of the food it yieldeth, that which is fet multiplying a hundred fold more than that which is fown. 'Tis incredible how many poor people in London live thereon, so that, in some seasons, the gardens feed more people than the field ! " I hope to have it in my power, before the conclusion of the present work, to give a general view of

the

[•] I am credibly informed, that many of them live upon 15. 6d. To account for which, it will be necessary to observe, per week. that their diet confess, in a great measure, of the produce of the gardens, which they have gratis.'

Rath is Saxon. ' Fuller's Worthies, part iii. p 77.'

the

Lylons's Environs of London.

efent state of gardening in the neighbourhood of London, and ertain, pretty nearly, what quantity of ground is occupied for surpose. The rent of land in Fuller's time appears to have extremely high. The gardens at Battersea pay 7s. 6d. an acre less to their vicar.' P. 27 - 8.

re we may remark that we have no intimation to what this work may be expected to reach; the present is hed as volume 1., and the diffrict remaining to be ded confifts of the whole of Middlesex, with portions more s of Kent, Eslex, and Hertfordshire: so that two more es are the least that we may imagine will be requisite. e next specimen which we shall offer to our readers, is of a ent nature from the preceding extract, though to the fame se, viz. that of furnishing a comparison between distant and manners. In treating of Dulwich, Mr. Lyfons promany anecdotes of the Life of Mr. Alleyn, founder of the e there, whose theatrical profession is well known: but, also joint-proprietor of a bear-garden on the Bankfide, wark, he purchased the office of master ' of all and fingular ajesty's games of bears and bulls, and mastive dogs, and ve bitches:' which office is thus explained:

s the nature of this office is little known, it will perhaps be
ig to my readers, to give a short account of it, with copies of
all papers relating thereto. Whenever it was the king's plea-

e certain number of mastiff dogs yearly, upon condition that the commission should never come into their neighbourhood. Among Alleyn's papers is an engagement signed by certain persons of the town of Manchester, wherein they promise to send up yearly "a masty dogge or bytche to the bear garden, between Midsomer and Michaelmasse." The master of the bear-garden, in queen Elizabeth's time, was allowed to have public baitings on Sundays in the afternoon which liberty was taken away by James I. Alleyn complains much of this in a petition to the king; in which he also prays for an increase of salary. The whole petition is curious, and throws so much light upon the nature and prevalence of this diversion, that I shall make no apology for inserting it at length; and with it shall close this digression upon bear-baiting:

"To the king's most excellent majesty, the humble petition of Philip Henslow, and Edward Alleyn, your majesties servants.

of Sir John Dorrington, to grant the office of master of your game of bulls, bears, and dogs, with the see of sixteen pence per diem, unto Sir William Steward, Knt.; at which time the howse and beares, being your majesty's petitioners'; but we not licensed to bayte them, and Sir William Steward resusing to take them at our hands upon any reasonable terms, we were therefore enforced to buy of him the said office, passime, and see, at a very high rate; and whereas, in respect of the great charge that the keeping of the said game continually requires, and also the smallness of the see; in the late queen's time, free sliberty was permitted without restraint to bayt them, which now is taken away from us, especially on the Sundays in the asternoon, after divine service, which was the chiefest means and benefit to the place; and in the time of sickness, we have been restrained many times on the working days; these hindrances, in general, with the loss of divers of

the beaftes, as before the king of Denmark we lost a goodly beare of the name of George Stone +; and at another bayting, being before your majestie, were killed four of our best bears, which in your kingdom are not the like to be had, and which were in value worth 30%, and also our ordinary charges amount yearly to 2001. and better;

"Thence for my voice, I must (no choice)
Away of force, like posting horse,
For sundry men had placards then
Such child to take."

Plays were performed on Sundays, in the reign of queen Eli-

zabeth. Malone's Hist. of the Stage, p. 126.

[&]quot;Commission to George Buck to take up as many paynters, embroiderers, taylors, &c. as he shall think necessary for the office of the revels." Pat. 1 Jac. pt. 24. June 23. "Commission to Andrew Pitcairn, to take up hawks for his majesty's recreation, and pigeons and hens for the keeping of them." Pat. 5 Car. 1. p. 1. Oct. 30."

⁺ In a letter to Alleyne, among his MSS. mention is made of a bear called "Little Besse of Bromley," who sought in one day the notable exploits of twenty-one double and single courses with the best dogs in the country."

these losses and charges are so heavy upon your petitioners, that whereas formerly we could have letten it forth for 100l. a year, now none will take it gratis to bear the charges, which is your poor fervants undoing, unless your maiestie, of your gracious clemencie, have confideration upon us. These causes do enforce us humbly to become fuitors unto your majestie, that in respect of the premises, and that we have, ever fince your gracious entrance into this kingdom, done your majestie service with all duty and observance; it would please your majestie in your most royalle bounty, now so to relieve us, as we may be able to continue-our service unto your majestie as heretofore we have done; and to that end, to grant unto us free liberty, as hath been granted in the late queen's time; and also in respect of our great and dayly charge, to add unto our said see 25. and 8d. being never as yet increased since the first foundation of the office. And whereas, there are divers vagrants and persons of locse and idle life, that usually wandereth through the country with bears and bulls without any licence, and for ought we know ferving no man, spoyling and killing dogs for that game, so that your majestie cannot be ferved but by great charges to us, fetching them very far; which is directly contrary to a flatute in that behalf, for the reftraining of such: your majestic would be pleased, in your most gracious favour, to renew unto your petitioners our pastime; and to grant us, and our deputies, power and authoritie to apprehend fuch vagrants, and to convene them before the next justice of peace, there to be bound with sureties to forseit his said bears and bulls to your majesties use, if he shall be taken to go about with any such game, contrary to the laws of this your majestie's realm; and your poor servants will dayly praye for your majesties long and happy reigne." P. 92, &c.

Royal sports have usually had a stamp of savageness on them; and though our court may have reformed in the instance above cited, yet, as royal fanction gives a strong tincture to the manners of a country, we have scarcely yet gotten the better of old brutal customs. Tilts and tournaments debased to prize-fighting, with bear-baitings, are scarcely out of memory; and, if we mistake not, bull-running formed a conspicuous article of complaint in the presentment of a grand jury,

even within the last twelve months.

In this work, the antiquary, as well as the miscellaneous reader, will meet with much intelligent information, respecting manors, churches, families, armorial bearings, monumental inscriptions, interspersed with personal anecdotes and local particulars, all treated in a free, liberal, and amusing manner. The volume is elegantly printed, and is illustrated with twenty-seven engravings of views, remarkable buildings, churches, tombs, portraits, and other objects of curiosity; though we must add that the style of the engravings is not to us of the most pleasing kind:—but, if not the most picturesque, it is, perhaps, the best suited to accuracy of representation.

Art.

ART. VII. The History and Antiquities of the University of Oxford, in Two Books: By Anthony à Wood, M.A. of Merton College. Now first published in English, from the original MS in the Bodleian Library. By John Gutch, M.A. Chaplain of All Souls and Corpus Christi Colleges. Vol. 1. 4to. pp. 667. 11. 11s. 6d. in Boards. Printed at Oxford; fold by Nichols, London.

A SUFFICIENT account of the nature of this publication was extracted by us from the former part of this work, which appeared in 1786, under the title of The History and Antiquizies of the Colleges and Halls in the University of Oxford, published under the care of the editor of this part of the undertaking*. The unforeseen and extraordinary labour which the patient author had to undergo in preparing his English work for the Latin version, required by the Heads of the university. by recovering all the antient charters, bulls, and quotations. verbatim and at large, of which he had before taken the abstract sense, is pathetically represented in the author's presace before us.; and how well he was rewarded for his fervices, and gratified in the liberties taken by Dr. Fell the translator, have already been hinted in the article above cited. The fact was, Anthony performed a laborious undertaking for his own fatiffaction; the artful purchasers bought it ready made for a paltry confideration, and availed themselves of his honest zeal, to stipulate for its being accommodated to their purposes; which he, having heedlessly agreed to it, thought himself bound to execute, however he might regret his engagement. fortunately for literary men, their turn of mind, aided to their circumstances, generally unfit them for making bargains: it is only in some rare instances, where worldly policy luckily unites with other talents, and poverty happens to be at a due diffance, that they obtain recompences, for which Prudence, as a disguise, assumes the merit of Generosity. Before we quit this subject, it may be added that the art of money-getting is an art sui generis, and is more often found alone than in asfociation with other kinds of knowlege; (virtues being out of the question;) and if we attend to Wood's character of the fons of alma mater, at different times, his dealings with the Heads of the university in this instance will not be produced as an exception.

Anthony Wood was not, in proper terms, a man of this world; he was one of those Beings who desert the times in which they were born, to live and travel through past ages, as far back as they can grope their retrograde way through obscurity. Being thus untit for the present world, they despite their

See Rev. vol. lxxvi, p. 287.

Gutch's Transl. of Wood's Hift. of Oxford.

poraries, and are in turn despited by them. Devoting ttention to men and things no longer in existence, if their s be at any time acknowleged, it is by future generawhen they themselves also are numbered with the dead,

e become antiques.

is it fared with honest Anthony, who, (aecording to prefixed to this volume, chiefly extracted from a MS. of earne, and which is as barren as any literary life whatis described as

person who delighted to converse more with the dead than with ng, and was, as it were, dead to the world, and utterly unknown on to the generality of scholars in Oxon. He was so great an r of a folitary and private life, that he frequented no affemblies faid university, had no companion in bed or at board, is his walks, or journies, nor held communication with any, unless me, and those very few, of generous and noble spirits; and all things confidered, he was but a degree different from an as fpending all or most of his time, whether by day or night, ing, writing, and contemplation.'- He was equally regard-envy or fame, out of his great love to truth, and therefore no wonder he took fuch a liberty of speech, as most other , out of prudence, cunning, or defign, have usually declined. ideed as to his language, he used such words as were suitable profession. It is impossible to think that men who always conith old authors, should not learn the dialect of their acquaint-An antiquary retains an old word with as much rel

reading, as appears by the numerous references to the authorities for them: but they consist of matters of a very trivial nature, chiefly of disputes, brawls, and frays among the students, and between them and the townsmen of Oxford; disgusting to the reader, of little credit to the seminary, and of no obvious use, unless they may prove of service in settling the chronology of other affairs with which the parties introduced may happen to be connected. On the whole, the facts and anecdotes enable us to form a very low opinion, indeed, of the learning cultivated, and the discipline maintained, in this samous university, during the papal ages.

We observe, throughout, much attention bestowed on securing to Oxford the priority of foundation with respect to Cambridge, to which Anthony will not allow the rank of an university before the year 1317, 11 Edw. II.*; and he loses no opportunity of infinuating its inseriority as a seminary of learning; a spirit of petty rivalship which may be pardoned, but

cannot be approved.

Among the matters best intitled to notice in this volume, may be mentioned Wood's account of the introduction of the study of civil law into the university +, the particulars respecting Roger Bacon +, his anecdotes and character of John Wyeliste the reformer ||, and his account of the introduction of the art of printing ||; concerning all which the judicious reader, after owning his obligation to Anthony for the sacts,

will do well to exercise his own judgment.

The volume closes, as before observed, with the year 1509, the 1st of Henry VIII. at which time the author gives a very gloomy account of the declining state of the university. We are to observe that, this time being the eve of the reformation of the national religion, new opinions, even at Oxford, were gradually undermining the good old doctrines that upheld the Romish hierarchy, for which Anthony's studies gave him a strong predilection. Scholars, (he laments,) were inconstant and wavering, and could not apply themselves to an ordinary fearch in any thing. They rather made choice of, than embraced, these things which their reasons were capable of **;'—a sad falling off this, from 'the acute readings and disputations' which he elsewhere applauds!

[•] Page 393. + Ib. 150. ‡ Ib. 332. || Ib. 511, &c. What Anthony thought of reformers in general, is plainly expressed in pp. 158. 528. 565, &c. § Ib. 623. • Ib. 665.

VIII. An Essay on the Nature and Constitution of Man; comending an Answer to the following Question, proposed by a
ned Society: " Are there any satisfactory Proofs of the Imriality of the Soul? If such Proofs exist, what Conclusions are
formed from them with respect to the Soul's Duration, Senand Employment, in its State of Separation from the Body?"
. C. Sims, M.D. 8vo. pp. 79. 25. sew.d. Phillips. 1793.

have witheffed to many unforcefsful attempts to explore the unknown region of the intellectual world, that we take up any new treatife on this subject with sanguine ations of receiving new light to guide our future rers. The present writer, diffatisfied with the philosophy teaches that the foul of man is the refult of the peculiar zation of the brain and nerves, is an advocate for pular doctrine, that man confifts of a body and foul ; and he maintains that it is an indivisible and immaterial ce, and therefore naturally immortal. The argument, ch he grounds his opinion, is this: - That, in every pern of external objects, by means of the fenfes, and in the Il operations of reason and memory, we are conscious of the operations performed, and of an internal agent performs them; and, as confciousness is certain know-we certainly know, without reasoning, that this agent is and of a different nature from the material frame of the

man; a divine monitor, which is not a part of the human conflitution, but the grace or free gift of God, given to each individual for his infructor or guide through life.—For the reft of Dr. Sims's speculations, we must refer the reader to the work, which, whether satisfactory in its reasoning, or not, is clearly and correctly written.

ART. IX. Sermons on different Subjects, by John Hewlett, of Magdalene College, Cambridge; and Lecturer of St. Vedast's, Fosterlane. Vol. II. 8vo. pp. 504. 6s. Boards. Rivingtons, Johnfon, &c.

THE perusal of this volume has, in the main, confirmed the favourable opinion which we formed of Mr. Hewlett, as a writer of sermons, when his first volume passed under our inspection. [See Rev. vol. lxxvii. p. 147.] He still continues to treat chiefly on practical subjects, of general utility; and, in discoursing on them, he preserves the due medium, so suitable to popular addresses, between abstruse refinement of speculation on the one side, and slat and inspid triteness on the other; his sentiments, if not new, are commonly just and interesting; the arrangement of thoughts is regular and perspicuous; his language, if not highly ornamental, has the more essential qualities of classical purity and neatness; and he sometimes, by adopting the form of direct address, rises to a considerable degree of animation.

Of the sermons contained in this volume, which are twentyone in number, thirteen are on general topics of practical
morality; namely, The Mischiess arising from a wavering and
unsettled State of Mind; The relative Duties of the Young to
the Aged; The relative Duties of the Aged to the Young;
The Union of Godliness with Contentment; Forbearance;
Christian Fortitude; Pride; Beneficence; Godly Sorrow;
Duty of examining our secret Faults; Idleness; The Duty of
praising God; Sobriety. Among these, the discourses on the
reciprocal duties of the young and the aged are particularly
pleasing, as containing many useful reslections; for which the
author has been more indebted to his observation of life, than
to common-place reading. A similar remark might be applied
to the discourses on pride and on secret faults.

Mr. H. is particularly happy in illustrating scripture characters, and in deducing from them moral instruction. The reader will find three very pleasing discourses of this kind in the present volume; on the character and conduct of Zaccheus, of St. Peter, and of Pilate. Perhaps, in the last of these discourses, the conduct of Pilate is treated with too much severity, when it is imputed to base depravity; it appears rather to have pro-

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ceeded from pufillanimity. It seems also to be afferted, without fufficient proof, that Pilate afterward put an end to his life from the same motive which actuated Judas, and sought a resuge

from despair in the horrors of self-destruction.

Beside the discourses already mentioned, there are a few others of a more speculative cast, which must be distinctly mentioned. In a fermon on the probability of our meeting and recognizing each other in a future state, Mr. H. infers this probability from the continued consciousness of the soul after death, from the identity of the body at the refurrection. and from the communion of angels. In a discourse on the yoke of Christ, obedience to the Christian law is shewn to produce a spirit of moral freedom. The subject of Superstition is distinctly treated, with the particular view, as it seems, of vindicating certain forms and ceremonies, admitted into religious institutions which have been formed not for philosophers but for the body of the people, against the censures of certain e jealous and untractable sectaries." It is remarked, as an inconsistency in Dissenters, that they commemorate a political revolution, and yet object to the observation of a religious festival .- How hard is the present lot of Differents; who, on the one hand, are blamed for a supposed want of attachment to the British constitution; and, on the other, are accused of political superstition, for having been almost the only body who have preached and published sermons on the centenary of the revolution! Mr. H. has added two discourses on Infidelity, in which he assigns, as the causes of its prevalence, indolence, vanity, impatience of controul, and depravity of manners. We remark in these discourses several expressions of that vulgar spirit of bigotry, which confines all religious principle within the pale of the Christian church. If a modern Deist admits the being of God, 'his faith, (says Mr. H.) may be truly said to be dead, for generally, I believe, it has little more to do with the regulation of his conduct, than a belief in the velocity of light, or the infinite extension of space: Indiscriminate centures on the principles and motives of men cannot, to fay the least, be very consistent with the candid spirit of Christianity; and we are forry to find any such indications of illiberality in a work which is, on the whole, entitled to muck commendation.

ART. X. Personal Nobility: or, Letters to a Young Nobleman, on the Conduct of his Studies, and the Dignity of the Peerage. 12mo. pp. 363. 4s. Boards. Dilly. 1793.

THE intrinsic value of noble birth has lately been more accurately examined than at any former period; and the consequence

consequence has been a general diminution of that reverence for titles, which, in ages of ignorance and despotism, was found so convenient to the great. The general distusion of wealth and the dissemination of knowlege have brought the higher and lower orders of society so much nearer to each other, that the former can no longer command the homage of the labourer by the mere pageantry of rank, without personal merit. If, from reasons of policy, these artificial dissinctions, the offspring of a military system of government, should be still continued, they will cease to be respected, except where they are united with those qualities which are in themselves valuable. In the expressive words of the author of these letters, the ancient nobility, in order to preserve any substantial superiority, must rebuild the honour of their houses on the basis of their own personal merit.

These are truths, which, however unpleasant they may be, it is necessary that the rising race of nobles should be taught; and they are urged with great force and spirit, but at the same time with a due regard to decorum, in the work now before us. The author, no mean master of the graces of language, is a warm advocate for antient learning, and is of opinion that the honour of the privileged orders cannot be more effectually promoted, than by a return to the truly classical mode of education which prevailed among the great in the reign of Elizabeth. Many of the letters turn on the subject of classical study, and contain excellent advice concerning the manner in which it should be pursued by a young nobleman. The following, which is wholly of the preceptive kind, will afford a good specimen of the easy and handsome manner in which useful instruction is

My Lord,

here presented to young persons:

Your Lordship expressed a wish in your last letter, that I would be more explicit on the plan which I advised you to pursue. I am happy in finding you defirous of information, and wish it may be in my power to offer such as you may experience to be truly useful.

improvements, in that kind of elegant and pleasing learning, which the French call Belles Lettres; the English, classical learning; and the Ancients, the fudies of bumanity. You have already made a very considerable progress in this department under your tutor. But it must be confessed, that you have read the classics hitherto, rather for the sake of acquiring the ancient languages, and exemplifying the rules of grammar, than of resining your taste, and of extending your knowledge of life and manners.

You will do right to re-peruse the most celebrated of the classics with more liberal views. Procure the best variorum editions of them all, for the sake of referring to them when difficulties arise. Begin with

Virgil, and read him in the edition of Heyne. Do not trouble yourfelf at first with the variantes lectiones, nor with all those discourses
which the ingenious editor entitles excursus; but read all his notes at
the bottom of the pages. They will give you a just idea of Virgil's
excellence, in many passages where the beauties may at first not strike
your taste. Finish all the works of Virgil, before you enter on any
other classic. You will soon read him with interest; which is seldom
the case when a classic is read chiefly to analyse the construction, in
short interrupted portions, as at school, or under a private tutor.

From thus studying and relishing Virgil, you will receive an improvement in your taste, which will enable you to discover those charms which captivate the classical reader in all the celebrated authors of the

Augustan age.

Let Homer's Iliad be read immediately after Virgil's Aneis. Read him without notes; for no author writes more perspicuously, and notes only distract attention when they are not necessary. Read him in the Oxford edition, without a Latin translation; having at the same time, in a separate volume, a Latin translation to refer to occasionally and to save the trouble of turning over a lexicon. After a careful reading of the two or three first books, you will find little difficulty in the language. The few that may arise, will be easily removed by the translation. I wish you could proceed entirely without a translation; but as this is more perhaps than I ought reasonably to expect, I recommend one, merely to avoid the toil of turning over the lexicon. Not that I think the toil useless; but I fear it will be more troublesome than you will chuse to submit to, especially as editions with literal translations abound, in which the meaning of every word is accurately discovered with little labour.

By an attentive perusal of Virgil and Homer, you will not only have acquired a perfect acquaintance with those first-rate writers, but at the same time a great knowledge of mythology, and of that poetical history which tends to facilitate the study of the classics of all ages and all countries. Other authors are to be read indeed in due order, but Virgil and Homer should be first digested. They will furnish a solid corner-stone for the future edifice, however massy or magnificent the design. Not to weary or alarm you with requiring too much at once, I shall pursue the subject in subsequent letters, if, amid your other employments, you deem what I have already proposed, not impracticable.

But left you should think that I have lost fight of the plan of which I spoke, I must remind you that the Belles Lettres constitute the first part of it. It will be followed by logic, ethics, metaphysics, physics,

mathematics, history, philosophy, and general literature.'

In several subsequent letters, the author pursues the same subject, with a particular reference to the design of qualifying his young pupil for public speaking. Some very judicious instructions are given for the formation of a classical library. Without adhering to the precise formality of a didactic system, and, we must add, without offering any thing farther than the most general and cursory hints on matters of science, the writer goes on to add some directions with respect to the study of



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of logic, ethics, metaphysics, physics, mathematics, history, general philosophy, and general literature. What is offered on these subjects will be chiefly useful in exciting the attention of young persons to them; practical directions for prosecuting them must be sought elsewhere.

From the letters of moral and prudential council contained in this volume, we select the following on the importance of

supporting dignity of character:

An ancient mansion, or an old oak, UNDECAYED, are venerable. The mind approaches them with a kind of awe. So an ancient family, long famous for its virtues and prosperity, and still stourishing, is naturally productive of esteem. But if the old mansion is reduced to a mere heap of rubbish, and the old oak rotten, we pass them unnoticed, or consider them as incumbrances of the ground. Apply

this image to fallen, corrupt nobility.

To use a vulgar phrase, you must keep it up, my Lord. Send a poor, puny, degenerate lord, descended from the Conqueror, with no abilities of mind and body, and a healthy, virtuous, and able plebeian, into a foreign country, among perfect strangers, without any distinction of dress; and the strangers will soon determine which is the nobleman. Nature produces gold, the king stamps it, and it passes current as a guinea; but if the guinea has been clipt, or if there is too much alloy in it, it will be rejected at the exchange. The pure gold, without any stamp at the mint, will always retain its value according to its weight. Stamp your gold, however, with virtuous qualities, such as affability, gentleness, courage, good temper, magnanimity, learning, eloquence, generosity, and it will never suffer the disgrace of being cut asunder by the sheers, and cast into the crucible.

I am far from disparaging nobility. The times are rather unfavourable to it; and I am endeavouring to render it really venerable, by founding its fancied superiority on real pre-eminence. Noblemen may indeed value themselves highly: but self-value does not increase their real value. Their real value is that alone at which they are esteemed by the public. It is not the seller, but the buyer, that

determines the price of a commodity.

Convinced as I am that you have early imbibed these sentiments, I should not inculcate them again, had you not informed me, that two or three young lords, with whom you often associate, had endeavoured to persuade you, that there is a dignity in birth, independent of personal merit, or beneficent exertion. They spend their time chiefly in the stable, at the tavern, and at the gaming-house; they substitute a horse-laugh in the place of all argument; and they would willingly reduce you, by ridiculing your virtues, to a level with their own degenerate state. But what say the people at large, on whom both you and they must depend for a continuance of your honours and pri vileges? They bid you cast your eyes over the British Channel, and learn in time a lesson of caution.

Only consider the useless life of these young noblemen, whose fortunes are princely, and whose titles, in *Jound*, right henourable. They rise at twelve, they dress, they ride, they dine, they game, they go to tome

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public place, they sup, they drink to excess, and then retire again, and renew the same contemptible round on the morrow. Can you wonder that the people view their civil distinctions with an evil eye? When such an one is on his departure, let him take a retrospective view of his life. What have I done? may he ask: my life has been useless to others, and to myself dishonourable. Am I one of the lords of the creation, as well as a lord in civil rank, distinguished above others by my country? If nature had made me a tree, or an animal without reason, I might probably have been more useful than I have been, and more truly estimable.

Never let the false wit and rude conversation of such degenerate nobles stop you in your honourable career. Treat them with politeness, but act and speak with spirit; and, above all, persevere in the path of honour which you have chosen, and mark the end of your

choice.'

The subject of religion is discussed in several letters; and with becoming dignity. The contempt, with which the religious observance of Sunday is treated by many in the higher orders of society, is very properly censured. The renewal of something like the antient hospitality, in the country mansions of nobles, is recommended as the hest means of meriting and preserving respect. On the subject of politics, the author is a prudent but steady friend to freedom. He inculcates on his young nobleman the exertion of his influence and example in preserving peace, good order, and liberty unfullied by licentiousness. Dreading the horrors of sudden convulsion, he recommends these salteratives which will restore health in time, without the pain of amputation or the loathsomeness of nauseous medicine.

have imbibed in the schools of antiquity, ever lean to the side of liberty and the people. Common sense dictates, and common humanity eagerly adopts the idea, that the sew were made for the many, not the mary for the sew. Your greatness of mind will sacrifice every selfish view to the public benefit. If a reform should be required, which may render it necessary that you should give up your instruction over the borough of **, or that of ***, and your power in the county election, you will renounce them with alacrity you will, if you act consistently with those ideas of justice and honour which I know you entertain, be among the first to promote such a reform, whatever it may cost you.

Human affairs, we all know, will ever stop at a point far below perfection; but it is the business of man in society, to be ever urging the stone up the hill. Time causes every human institution to recede from its original purpose. No wonder that the constitution of a senate established in very early times, should at length want renewal. What good and substantial reason can be assigned, why the present generations may not enjoy the benefit of its renewal, as well as some future? Now only liberty and the true spirit of the constitution are interested in a re-

form

form of parliament, but the MANNERS OF THE PEOPLE, and consequently their happiness, the ultimate end of all government. suption will no longer pervade all ranks, in every competition, from a county election to the choice of a parish beadle. Merit will dare to emerge from her shade. Truth, no longer overborne, will advance, with all her native confidence, to put in her claim to just esteem. Astrza will return from her exile. Long services, or great talents and acquirements, employed for the public good, will meet with their zeward, The prizes, which justly belong to merit, will not be lavishly expended on purchasing majorities directed in their decisions by one MAN. Young adventurers, in all the professions, will aspire at excellence, with a prospect of honour and emolument in their mature age, even though they should want that succedaneum for every excellence, a FRIEND; - a FRIEND among borough-mongers, a PATRON among chose who employ the advantages of birth and fortune, in influencing votes, where votes cannot be influenced confidently with common

You, my Lord, will worship with me in the temple of Liberty, built, as it is in England, on the massy arches of monarchy, aristocracy, and democracy; but if any one of the arches is decayed, you will wish with me, in your veneration for the goddess, to preserve her temple perfect in all its parts, and to employ the most skilful masons, the best

marble, and the strongest cement in its repair.

THUS REPAIRED, enter the temple with me, my Lord; and let us unite our voices to the general anthems of whole nations, hailing the fun of reason as it daily bursts through the clouds of prejudice—celebrating the Nobility of Nature and Virtue—and doing willing homage to the MAJESTY OF THE PEOPLE.

Liberal fentiments, of the fame kind with the preceding, will be found in several other parts of this volume. The sound sense and the good writing, which distinguish this publication, sender it very proper to be put into the hands of young men in the higher ranks of society:—it may be considered as a beautiful comment on the eighty-first Satire of Juvenal—an elegant sermon on the text,

"Tota licet weteres exornent undique ceræ Atria, Nobilitas sola est atque unica Virtus."

We have heard this work attributed, with much confidence, to Dr. Knox.

ART. XI. A Tour through the South of England, Wales, and Part of Ireland, made during the Summer of 1791. 8vo. pp. 403. 12 Plates. Fine Paper, 14s. Common ditto, 10s. 6d. Boards. R. Edwards. 1793.

ALL the external circumftances observable on opening this publication, the fine paper, the plates worked in fancy colours, and the loose print, together with the easy familiar E e 4

ftyle of the journal, bespeak the production of a gentleman traveller. He has published a summer's ramble, without reflecting that his excursion was so far within the bounds of common knowlege, as to require uncommon abilities, or a peculiar object of attention throughout, to render it generally interesting. Accounts of places already often described, and now well known, amount merely to what particular persons think of them; which may be of no great moment to some readers.—The motive for this journey is thus explained:

It is not the effect of a particular species of diet, nor the impressions made by a fickle climate upon the disposition of Englishmen, that cause those phlegmatic vapours, and that depression of spirits, which are so justly become the characteristic of a whole nation. From what source then does this evil originate? Evidently from a relaxation of the mental powers, indulged to an excess. Air, exercise, and even literary resources, without a certain degree of novelty, sail in their effect. A variety of new objects, and a total change in the scenery around us, operate in a delightful manner upon the spirits and health. The faculties of the mind, when absorbed in the speculation of the future, or too much engrossed in the contemplation of the past, become a prey to indolence and spleen, the very parents of suicide.'

Happily for the generality of our countrymen, the remarks contained in the above paragraph apply chiefly to those whose parents (to avail ourselves of a vulgarism,) were born before them; and their passage through life being made easy by hereditary wealth, they exist to no serious purpose whatever, excepting it be to regulate their movements according to prevailing modes. Some degree of education may have taught men of this class how to think, but fortune whispers in their ear that they have no occasion to think; thought, therefore, is, in them, involuntary; the fickness of stagnant faculties. men do well to hurry from place to place, to change the scenery around them, and, if possible, to escape even from themselves. The great mass of mankind, however, to whom fortune has not been so equivocally kind as to excuse them from some mode of application, either of mind or body, generally find variety enough in the course of their employments at home, to render existence tolerable, and to secure them from becoming 'a prey to indelence and spleen.'

Passing from his motive for travelling, to the journey itself, we find the writer lively enough to fill up his pages, somewhat in the Shandyan manner, with very slender materials; nor does he wish to encumber himself with any thing that wears too grave an appearance. In brief, he is more able than willing; for, in an early stage of the work, he condescends to give something like a general description of Portsmouth, as from a man

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of observation; and, as if he had done wrong, he apologizes for it, afterward, in a style that damped our expectations of meeting with any more of the like kind of topographical entertainment:

But, gentle render, whoever thou art, whether prelate or peer, failor or foldier, critic, or commissioner of his majesty's dock-yards, reflect, that as yet we have travelled together but a short space,—beam not, so early, the sullen clouds of discontent upon these traces of my pen—consider me as one employed solely to give thee amusement—view these pages with candour, and I promise thee, as we sojourn together in suture, I will not again interlard them with musty descriptions of ravelins and counterscarps, nor pillage the works of my fore-stathers, for delineations of double parapets, stanked with bassions and courtains.

What then does this writer mean to give us? Nothing but the common personal adventures of himself, and his man Jeremy, on the road, and at inns? Let us look a little farther.

The naturalist will find, in Cornwall, a larger field for philosophical disquisition, than can be met with in any [other] part of England or Wales. Here he may indulge himself in endless experiments. Curiosities of every kind, numberless productions both of nature and of art, present themselves in abundance. Here he has an opportunity of penetrating into the very bowels of the earth, of exploring her inward recesses, and searching into her secret caverns. It would far exceed the limits of such a circumscribed work as this, to enter upon a detail of the vast variety of antiquities, minerals, sossils, foils, plants, manufactures, lakes, caverns, with a long et castera, in addition to the list of curiosities which would engage the attention of philosophers. I can only lament my inability to be more minute. I pass lightly inversually tapics, and press forward to a series of new objects, hoping to cull from every one some small share of amusement and information for my readers.'

What readers? Professing to pass lightly over the most interesting local topics, what species of readers does the author aim to amuse and inform? If his limits be inadequate to the purpose, why not enlarge them; why write at all in a mode that excludes the chief merit of visiting distant places?—but all this is only one of his modes of flourishing; for, in contradiction to his own professions, he will every now and then condescend to stop, and surnish a little information; and, following the above extract, he gives us an agreeable, if not a grave, account of the Cornish mines and minerals.

Still he is not pleased with the style of other travellers, and abours at something superior to every one:

Less the spire of a church a curiosity. For my part, I admire the pethods by which modern scribblers swell their works to a voluminous orm. One, who shall be nameless, thinks it worth mentioning, that Less with the control of the c

Lesswithies "has a church with a spire, the only one, except that of Helston, in the whole county." And yet this man has published his two volumes quarto—who wonders at it? Being so minute, he might have added, that weeds are found to slourish prodigiously in the church-yard; the only one in Cornwall, where they thrive in such abundance! P.75.

Truly so he might, and with great propriety, if the fact justified him. Surely there is more information in a remark, that spires are unusual in that county, than in merely telling us, in

rather a petulant style, that Lesswithiel church has a spire!

One specimen more will acquaint our readers with the character of the gentleman with whom they are invited to travel:

Returning from Plymouth on foot, I contrived to lose both my way and my companion. I found myfelf afcending the fummit of a steep hill, commanding a grand extensive prospect of the sea, Drake's island, Stonehouse, Plymouth, and Dock. While I was gazing about to see what course I ought to take, I observed, upon the side of the hill, an old gentleman in a musing posture, leaning upon his cane, and apparently indulging himself in the contemplation of the surrounding scenery. Fortune could not, thought I, have thrown a better person in my way, to extricate me from this dilemma. "Sir," said I, approaching him, " be kind enough to tell me the nearest way to Dock. I came from Plymouth, and have missed the road." " I perceive you have," faid he, " and if, as I suspect, you are a stranger to this place, it is lucky you have so done. We recked our walks around this spot the finest in the world, and, excepting the views from mount Edgecumbe, this is the best we have. You are now upon Stonehouse hill. Commercial speculations confine me daring the week to other contemplations, but on a Sunday I constantly wifit this terrace, to enjoy the beauties of the scene before us. When I was younger, I used to ascend to that point above us, in order to extend my view. You appear to be of an age for climbing, and if you have curiofity enough to lead you to the top, you will be amply repaid for your trouble." I took the old gentleman's advice, and feating mytelf on the summit of the hill, found how necessary it was for a traveller now and then to lose his way. Those who day by day purfue the beaten track, turning neither to the one fide nor the other, and anxious only to perform their journeys with expedition, had much better be scated in a chimney corner at home. They neither discover the beauties of their country, nor enjoy them when chance throws them in their way. The characters of human life have no variety for them; their views are felfish, and all their endeavours tend only to the most convenient methods of vegetation.'

Why was the fine prospect from Stonehouse hill suffered to stir up ill humour against those travellers who have not leisure enough to lose their way; or against those who fit at home in their chimney corners minding their business? Our author seems to have a rooted antipathy to steadiness of mind: but, as the busy part of mankind compose the majority, and as it may

fupposed that he would have no objection to their amusing ir leifure hours with his rambles, might they not as well be villy treated?

Having observed that descriptions of known objects are criin of the taste of the describer, the writer, who censures
ters so freely, can have no objection to the exposure of his
inions: nor needs he; for he is generally just, while he is
ntent to tread his own ground without interfering with
ters.

Bath, (he observes,) may be said to assord a universal scope for rry thing that is desirable. The man of pleasure may here be said with amusement; the philosopher may analyze its salubrious ings; the antiquarian may pursue his researches till he wearies afelf with conjecture; the man of letters will find ample repositories genius; the poet endless subjects to exercise his wit; the painter y delineate the seatures of beauty, or pourtray the luxuriant variety landscape; and, last of all, the dejected invalid may restore to its attend tenor the shattered system of a broken constitution; and, by ssing his debilitated nerves to their accussomed tone, revive his alth and renovate his spirits.'

Were we to add to this summary, it would be to doubt nether all these advantages be not crouded too closely togeer, to allow all of them to operate freely. The author's acunt of Oxford may illustrate our meaning:

In Oxford there seems, what may be styled, a disease of build-The traveller is presented with a profusion of edifices jumbled rether with no great display either of taste or design. It is a kind anarchy in stone and mortar, where every thing is confused; and :hitecture in a high fever, seems to have stuck one edifice here, and other there, varying the non-conformity of her work in proportion There is a mausoleum for a library, and a cock-pit her delirium. · public disputants. There is a sepulchre of manuscripts, and a long Mery, where heroes with ugly faces, and learned graduates in full stomed wigs, are copiously displayed upon canvas. What shall faid of Christchurch? Where neat little Peckwater cements the ty puddle and the leaden Mercury that difgraces its neighbouring adrangle-and of the boasted Theatre? with its wrong side foremost. at turns its back upon the public, and hides its fine front in a cornerd of St. Mary's? with a low Gothic spire, but of sufficient beauty every one to wish it taller-and of the prospect from the top of ideliffe's empty Library? where the view of All Souls alone is a rempence for the fatigue of afcending.'

Wales appears to be the country most admired by this traller; probably, because the wildness of its landscapes suited eccentricity of his ideas: but even here his mind could not properly elevated by the sublimity before him; if it had, is critic on other travellers would not have disgusted his aders by recording his search after his man Jeremy, when he

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had prudently and decently retired out of fight, among the ruine of Narbath castle.

Of all the volume, the short trip to Ireland will probably claim the greatest notice, at least among the inhabitants of that island. The author thus characterizes Dublin and its inhabitants:

- The first thing that struck us upon entering Dublin, was the singular appearance of the women; who are all without either hat or bonnet to their head. Even many of genteel appearance parade the streets in this manner, and it is as remarkable to see a woman in Dublin with a hat on, as to see one in London with her head uncovered.
- At our hotel we conceived a very despicable opinion of Irish cleanliness.—Upon this we changed our flation, and moved to Harris's hotel in Cope-street. This is esteemed the first lodging-house in Dublin, and yet we had not mended the matter. It was only jumping out of the frying-pan into the fire; for it is impossible to do justice to the exquisite filthiness of this place. Every thing was fine and dirty. Our beds had canopies and plumes, with counterpanes and sheets of a most sable hue. I asked them if they sad applied to go-The waiters stared: "Do, for God's fake, and the love of your country, (faid 1,) get a patent for having discovered how much filth it is possible to comprize in a given compais." We found that this appearance was not confined to hotels alone. The taverus are the fame. The streets are filled with wretchedness and grandeur, idleness and extravagance. It is not the habit of a few; it is the characteristic of the nation: a popular concern to unite at once every species of dislipation, filthings, and extortion. It struck us the more forcibly, as we found all this where we least expected it; we came prejudiced in favour of the Irish, longed to be among them, and had looked forward with regret to that period which was destined for our return.'-

The streets and avenues to this city are crouded with the most miserable objects, whose importunate clamours for charity are troublefome in the highest degree. In the environs we saw numbers of dirty
wretches, whose sole employment seemed to consist in divesting each
other of silth and vermin. If you enter a fruit-shop or tavern, a
croud of those poor creatures infest the door, through which you must
press your way, and deem yourself fortunate if you escape the detached
parties of vermin, &c.' P.312.

In one of my walks about the streets, I met the old veteran whole conversation afforded us so much amusement when becalmed at sea. "Well, my good Sir, (said he,) and how do you like Dublin?"—"In truth, Sir, not much; I am every inch of me an Englishman, and, I sear, behold all countries but my own with an eye of prejudice."—"Well said, John Bull; (exclaimed my old friend;) but what do you think of Dublin in particular? since you cannot form an adequate idea of a whole nation from a short visit to the metropolis."—"Sir, (said I,) in visiting a metropolis I behold the heart of a nation; and, if I discover what passes in the heart, I can estimate pretty nearly

mearly the tenor and disposition of the whole body. But since I find you are yourself an Irishman, tell me what is your opinion of this place, before I venture to deliver my own."—" That I can well do, (said he,) in a few words: I have wisted many countries, and made many observations doon them; but I never was in one that betrayed such a mixture of loudiness and laziness, misery and magnificence."

I felt the full force of his observation, since, from my own short experience among the Irish, I had found it strictly true. Beggars and proflicates fwarm in every street, and fill the air with their importunate cries. Extravagance is the leading trait in their character. I frequently faw children with broad laced frills to their shirts who had neither floors nor flockings to their feet. An instance of this may be feen at Drury's billiard-table every day, where there are two markers of this description. They will pawn their last rag for the pleasure of gaming; and I myself saw a fellow, opposite the custom-house in Essex-street, who had seated himself upon the ground, and, having ventured every penny he had at chuck-farthing, was howling for the loss of it. They are, in general, of a very irritable disposition, and will quarrel with each other upon the most trisling occasion. On the night of the Prince of Wales's birth-day, I was walking in Dame-Areet, when a fellow genteelly dressed met a boy who was running about with his companions. Without faying a word he raised a loaded whip, and knocked the boy down: a mob gathered: the fellow made off, and the poor boy was carried, with a broken head, to the apothecary's. About three o'clock in the afternoon of the next day, I saw a vast croud gathering, and, inquiring the cause, was told that some person had just killed a porter, whom they were conveying to the dispensary, and that his murderer was to go to Newgate. evening a boy was flogged, for some crime or other, almost to death at the cart's tail; and finding that he could not bear all his punishment, they removed him to prison to take the rest at another opportunity. Not a night passes without riot, although the police stand armed at the corner of every street. Duels, without end, continually furnish Subject for conversation, and not unfrequently topics of fresh dispute. Of all the people I ever met, whether educated in the army, the navy, in the universities, or at home, the Irish are the greatest fwearers. Not a word passes without an oath vociferated in the most vehement manner, and horrid imprecations are familiarly delivered **upon the** most trivial events.'

If the latter part of this representation be not exaggerated, the author has acted prudently in withholding his name from the public; for if Mr. Twiss incurred the resentment of such an itritable people in the manner commonly related, what had the writer of the preceding emphatic characteristics to expect?

As our author does not tempt us over to Dublin, it were to be wished that he had brought back any useful knowlege which he had picked up in this short trip.

Among the variety of commodities which a stranger meets with in Dublin, there are at least two, superior to any of the kind in other countries: these are potatoes and butter. They have a method of dressing

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dressing potatoes which renders that vegetable far more palatable that it is to be found in England.'

Pray, good Sir, what is that method? If you had bestowed a few words to teach our countrymen how to eat potatoes in greater perfection than they now do, we, who are fond of this excellent root, scruple not to add, that such an article of information would have added a positive merit to your volume.

Remarks of this nature may all, perhaps, be flighted by so spirited a writer: but we are no admirers of 'those hasty sketches which the reader will find so loosely thrown together; and as the writer intimates an intention of hastening 'among the wider regions of continental domain, in search of materials for a more important superstructure, we wish that, as he then means to throw aside his 'anonymous pen,' he really might assume a more respectable appearance: for which, Nature does not seem to have denied him sufficient talents. Before he reveals his name, however, we advise him to make himself master of the small sword and pistol shooting.

We cannot conclude without remarking that, in our opinion, much of the blame which the author so liberally bestows on the inhabitants of Haverfordwest, respecting the strange story of Mr. G—th, may be retorted on himself for leaving in confinement an object so worthy of relies. A really benevolent man would not have quitted Haverford without obtaining Mr. G.'s liberation, if the means were in his power; and that the comparatively small sum necessary for this purpose might have been commanded by our author, we have every right to suppose from his amusing himself with so long and so expensive a ramble.

ART. XII. Some Anacastes of the Life of Julio Bonasoni, a Bologness Artist, who followed the Styles of the best Schools in the Sixteenth Century. Accompanied by a Catalogue of the Engravings, with their Measures, of the works of that tasteful Composer; and Remarks on the general Character of his rare and exquisite Performances. To which is prefixed, a Plan for the Improvement of the Arts in England. By George Cumberland. Crown 870. pp. 100. 38. Boards. Robinsons. 1793.

In the 'Plan for improving the Arts in England,' prefixed to this work, Mr. Cumberland, like a good patriot, endeavours to advance the interests of his country, by exciting a greater attention to the antique; and we do not think that his scheme is a bad one, though we strongly doubt its adoption. We will give the general outline of the proposal in the author's own words:

Not the author of The Observer, West Indian, &cc. whose Christian name is Richard.

Cumberland's Anecdotes of the Life of Julio Bonasoni. 407

That a subscription be commenced (and if the Dilettante Society would begin it out of their funds, it would be consistent with their own generous efforts to improve the arts) in order to raise the sum of _____, which when completed, application should be made to Parliament for further assistance; the total of which sums, under their sanction, should be consolidated into a perpetual fund, to which proper trustees may be nominated, for the declared purposes, out of the annual interest, of commencing two galleries, and filling them, as fast as the interest accrues, with plaister casts from antique statues, bas-reliefs, fragments of architecture, sine bronzes, &c. collected tot only from Italy, but from all parts of Europe.

That these galleries should be placed, so as to enjoy a north light, being parallel to each other, and consist of strong but simple forms; void at sirst of all ornament, and solely calculated for the purpose of containing, in a good point of view, and well lighted, the several specimens of art. A convenient space for visitors to pass in view of them below and between the objects and the artists, who should be possessed of a raised stage, under a continued window, contrived to as to illuminate at once their drawing desk, and the images on the

eppofite wall.

These galleries, one for statues and architectural models, and one for bas-reliefs, should be each commenced, at the same time, in parallel directions, and each annually extended and furnished with casts, in the proportion that the sunds would admit. They should be indiscriminately opened to all students in the arts, and the public, under proper regulations, during the greatest part of the day through-

out the year.

All fine bas-reliefs, &c. should, if possible, be sent to England in molds, with a cast in them, by which means they not only come the fast from injury, but it would enable the managers to place in the gallery two or three casts of such as best deserved imitation; and then the molds might be sold to our molders in plaister of paris, by which means other cities would be enriched with many sine objects at a reasonable expence, to the great advantage of architects, schools,

and the public in general.

being cheaply multiplied, would injure the progress of our artists; but experience teaches otherwise; for those nations which most abound in such things, most abound in artists; and the more any thing is multiplied by casts or impressions, the more is the original esteemed; for while the narrow-minded amateur hides his fine Cameo, lest a sulphur should be obtained from it, both he and his ring are forgot; when, on the other hand, the liberal collector, whose chief pleasure it is to gratify all lovers with a copy of the sire originals he possesses, finds, to his surprize, the same proportion; and hence we may rest assured, that the multiplication of works of art always ends in a multiplied demand for the labours of artists.

The cheapness of paste has by no means decreased the esteem of diamonds; and man, happily for the multitude, has always considered richness and rareness of materials as no small addition to the merit of

workmanship;

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workmanship; even pictures have been painted, by good artists, or filver, to enhance their value. And here I cannot avoid observing the utility it would be of to sculpture, if our artists would, as was done by the ablest of both Greece and Rome, make models for architects in terra-cotta, at reasonable prices; for there are many who cannot afford marble, that would gladly encourage them in this effect in monuments, friezes, &c. The frequency of which in churches would probably increase the ambition of the wealthy to be represented in more expensive materials; and thence afford the artists more numerous opportunities of displaying their talents.

To return from this digression; as each bas-relief, &c. must of necessivy be placed at some distance from the ground, the space below I should propose to fill with the concise history of the cast, such as what have been the conjectures of antiquarians as to its history, author, &c. to which should be added, the time and place, when and where it was found, and the name of the country and situation the

original at present ornaments.

The pedestal of each statue might contain the like inscriptions, in painted letters, the more easily to correct them on any new information

• How useful such inscriptions would be to travellers; antiquarians, and artists, I need not point out; neither need I add the utility that would arise from marking with a line on each object the division of the restored parts; which lines might be made, by whatever artist was employed to send home the molds, on the spot: for the baneful effects of partial ignorance, which, like a weed, springs up among the best crops of human learning, are seldom more manifest than among those whose labours are directed to the elucidation of fine art in antique monuments.

Such galleries, when finished, would posses advantages that are wanting in numerous museums; where often, to gratify the love of ornament in the architect, fine bas-reliefs are placed so high, as to be of little use to students, and as traps only to the antiquarian; of which, having with younger limbs, and younger eyes, often followed

the enthusiastic Winkelman, I could give many instances.

'Here, however, all would be brought to a level, and to light; all the restorations carefully distinguished; and such men of learning, as, without great detriment to their affairs, can never see Italy, would hence find daily opportunities of benefiting and crediting the nation, as well as themselves, by their crudite remarks on monu-

ments that relate entirely to classic ground.

In a word, well prepared, both by the knowledge and study of these casts, our artists would be less consused on their arrival in staly among the originals; and a much shorter stay would then suffice: lassly, on their return, these galleries would help to perpetuate in their memories the result of their studies; a fund of employment would be afforded to young artists in copying these antiques for foreigners, as well as natives; and our engravers would here always find objects from whence great works might be executed, equally interesting to all Europe, and much more correct, as well as less expensive, than any that have hitherto appeared in elucidation of antiquities.

All

Cumberland's Anecdates of the Life of Julio Bonasoni. 409

All this feems rational, and of easy accomplishment: but where is MUNIFICENCE to execute the idea? Mr. Cumberland's wish that the Cartons of the immortal Raphael were more open to public inspection, will not, we fear, be productive of much effect.—The difficulty of viewing the easel chef effectives of that astonishing painter has been long a subject of complaint: but the time may possibly arrive, when the Royal Academy may be the depository of those inestimable treasures; and, by removing every difficulty of access, improve as well as delight a nation so strenuous in its progress to refinement, and already so respectable for its works of taste, elegance, and grandeur.

We cannot avoid reprobating an unfairness (not to use a more severe yet justifiable expression,) in Mr. C.'s mention of two or three artists only, as worthy of the public attention, at a time when he might have brought forward men of superior abilities. This gentleman [to us unknown, and new, as a writer,] should take care that, while he wishes to impress the world with an idea of his liberality in elevating two or three savenite characters, he does not create a contrary sentiment

by a partial neglect of others.

There is also a vein of splenetic asperity in the following note, which we think ill founded, and consequently reprehensible:

There are men in London, who, speculating in the labours of artists, have acquired great fortunes, not without speculating on the credulity of the public as largely. These people, encouraged by the respect that wealth insures in a commercial country, and, perhaps, self-persuaded by the vanity that attends success, are now taking upon themselves the importance of patriots among sellow-citizens, and (which cannot smilingly be passed over, because prejudicial to the art they profess to serve) patronizers of art itself. But if the public are to estimate the progress of sine art, by the abortion their struggles for profit produce, we shall soon arrive at a period, when the errors their barbarous impatience and rapacity have introduced, will, by excess, cure themselves; and then the sew, who have patiently pursued the direct path, will rise, and find their reward in the employment and approbation of the disabused public.'

Although no names are mentioned, it is impossible to miltake the illiberal allusion.—The objects of his attack have ex-

tended a patronage beyond the reach of Kings.

The anecdotes of the celebrated Italian engraver, Julio Bonasoni, are dry and uninteresting. He was an artist of note in his day, almost unknown in the present: but he has

^{*} He is supposed to have flourished during the greatest part of the fixteenth century.



Morris's False Colours: a Camedy.

ith a champion in Mr. C. to rescue him from that oblisto which he was rapidly descending.

XIII. False Colours, a Comedy in five Acts. As performed at ling's Theatre in the Haymarket, by his Majesty's Company the Theatre Royal, Drury-Lane. By Edward Morris, Fel-of Peterhouse, Cambridge. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Cadell. 1793. the difficulty of writing comedy with fuecels, few auhors, who have not made the attempt, are aware. elege to minute and varied, judgment to ftrong and felfig, imagination fo ardent, and humour, wit, and pafso incellant, are required, that few indeed are found equal task. To succeed even indifferently is a proof of talents cannot be called common. In this predicament we the author of the play under confideration. He has feen , has made many observations on men and manners, and has arranged his materials with effect: but, on the whole, ith effect enough. Character should be displayed, and celles of the heart developed: but, in order that emomay be created, we must have it directed toward some n point. When an author places any dependence on his that story must be progressive; and not seene after seene t in total neglect till it is forgotten. Wit and humour

Morris's False Colours: a Comedy.

the science itself, is equally censurable. We are likewise of opinion that characters, which have their fource in the mistaken habits of mind, are much better fitted, for the purpose of the poet, than those which originate in any profession, or trade. Of this last kind is the character of Grotesque, a painter of caricature, who seems to be himself so truly what his name implies, (that is, so extravagant, improbable, and absurd,) that we suspect the author erroneously supposed that he was at liberty to depart as much as he pleased from truth and nature, merely because he had given his character the title of Grotesque: but we should confider it as a poor apology, or rather as a ridiculous fubterfuge, were an author to name one of his personages Driveller, and were he afterward to exhibit an actual idiot. There may however be spirit and effect in a caricature; of which the picture here given, though extravagant, is not destitute. proof, we shall quote a part of the first and principal scene in which this character appears:

Act. II. Enter Grotesque to Lady Panick.

*Greet. Your ladyship's most devoted—something wanted in my tray—may statter myself Grotesque is your man, from the broad high-road of caricature, to the delicate paths of modest mezzotint—Has your ladyship any particular friend whom one constantly endeavours to render completely ridiculous—Privilege of friendship that, you know—the outline will do—set but your heads to work—a bare hint, and we have him—pen or pencil—all one to me—write him down—or do him up—never known to slinch.

Lady Panick. - What have you brought me in my way?

-I am all impatience.

of genius strikes at universality—from her losty slights to her raint sketches—here they are—here they are;—the sk leton of an epick poem—sublimity and expansion;—fix acrostics—quaint and pretty—a set of impromptus—written with such exquisite judgment—and admirable pliancy—that they may be thrown in ad libitum—and last, not least, the comedy.

Lady Panick. But, are we fure of our man?—He will not peach?—My dear Grotesque, what would become of me if he was to peach?—Indeed, the materials were mine—you know—though I

would not submit to the drudgery of putting them together.

Grov. Peach! Why, he is my head-hack—To fire the truth, the dog is troublesome enough at times—your poet is an animal wants a plaguy deal of training, before he is fit for work—I was obliged to keep him on strict regimen, and short allowance, till these were done—if your men of genius were not troubled with the physical incumbrances of hunger and thirst, there would be no taming them to answer the sober purposes of life—but as they must eat—though now and then a little restive—upon the whole, they take to the harness kindly enough—this is a prime fellow—and as much given to eating and drinking as we could wish him.

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41I.

Lady Panick. Yes, but unluckily his wife is prolific as his muse; and I am obliged to answer for the labours of both—really, it is a sad blot in the animal economy—such offices should be left to those who

are fit for nothing elfe—have you no others?

Grot. A dozen in full pay, befides valets and kept mistresses to farnish materials. They are the channels for a choice hit or secret anecdote—not a house in town but by the help of my correspondence I could tell a tale—most of my practice lies in that line, though I must own our best hits slow chiefly from themselves. You are never in a family-party half an hour before you have all their faults in the choice-colouring of their own pencils—who would have thought his Grace more than round-shouldered—but for the dutchess's intemperate raillery against humps—the baldness of Lord Scratch could never be suspected but for his lady's phillippics against wigs—and Sir Jerry's gout would escape the nicest observer, but for the good wise's crushing the assisted toe, and hoping she trod on the sound foot.

* Sir Paul. A devilish shrewd observation that, Grotesque.

Grot. I am glad you like it, Sir Paul. I have your striking trait—fome thoughts of hitching you into my next groupe.

Sir Paul. Hitch me into a groupe!

Lady Panick. Indeed, my dear, I really think if Grotesque was to manage it properly, I should have no objection; and I dare say

you might depend on him-Might he not, Grotesque?

Grot. Certainly, my lady—the best creature breathing, though I say it. Tother day, Pearl the dentist, who had been regularly overturn'd, plundered, fired at in every daily paper, quitted the hackneyed beaten track, applied to me, and I caricatured him into sell practice before the end of the month—nothing done without it—the sure road to notoriety.

Sir Paul. Zounds, firrah, notoriety! it's the business of my life

to avoid it.'

This scene is continued in the same spirit to double the length, by the entrance of Lord Visage: but we have done the

author the justice to cite the most animated part.

The prologue is written by Charles Morris, Esquire. The national prejudice which it inculcates, in favour of Britons and in contempt of France, is highly blameable. Neither can we imagine that the recital of a tragedy, (the death of Louis XVI.) is a fit subject for this kind of poem. The simile of the ship-wreck at the close of it, though common place, is happily managed. The epilogue is the production of Mr. Colman, Jun. and contains a fault of narrow national jealousy of the same kind, though not carried quite so far. He, however, is no anti-physiognomist, for he tells us—

Faces are books, where men may read strange matters; Of the mind's movements ev'ry seature smatters; As thoughts arise, though the mute tongue conceal them, Our eyes, cheeks, chins, and noses, all reveal them.

This

Macklin's Man of the World; and Love à la Mode. 413.

This epilogue has many lines of good writing, but it has one capital fault; it proposes physiognomy as its subject, and immediately changes that subject for another, to which it strictly adheres; that is, a library, or a bookseller's shop. Mr. Colman has likewise condescended to repeat a joke which certainly once was good, but which has been told rather too often. We allude to the following lines:

More than half
 Of critics now, who found a harmless laugh,
 Are dull unlettered lumber bound in calf.'

He has committed another offence: an epilogue, which has infinitely more merit than, if our information be true, many that have excited more applause, is closed with a pun:

Be kind then, here! faces no more I'll read; Give but your countenance, and we succeed.'

ART. XIV. The Man of the World, a Comedy; and Love à le Mode, a Farce. By Mr. Charles Macklin. As performed at the Theatres Royal, Drury Lane and Covent Garden. Royal Quarto. With a Portrait of the Author in his Ninety-third Year, engraved by Condé, after a Painting by Opie. Subscription price one Guinea. Bell. 1793.

THE editor of these two pieces, Mr. Murphy, informs us, in an advertisement prefixed to this edition, that 'he first advised Mr. Macklin to publish by subscription; being convinced that a generous public would take into consideration the case of a veteran actor, who had exerted his talents during a series of near [nearly] seventy years, to promote useful mirth and the moral instruction of the stage; that the reason of this appeal was a sudden sailure of memory, with which Mr. Macklin was attacked nearly three years since, in the middle of his part on Covent Garden stage; and that, after living in hopes of recovering his saculties, he now seels with regret that he can never again have the honour of presenting himself before a British audience.'

The amount of the subscription was 1,582 l. 11 s. which has been disbursed in purchasing two annuities, one of two hundred pounds, for Mr. Macklin, and another of seventy five pounds, for his wise, in case she should survive, and in other items, a remainder of 2701. 18 s. excepted, which will be applied for Mr. Macklin's use by the trustees, who are Dr. Brocklesby, John Palmer, Esq. of the Post Office, and Thomas Longman, Esq. of Paternoster-row.

We forbear from giving a more minute account, because the advertisements, which contained a history of the case, are re-

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414 Macklin's Man of the World; and Love à la Mode.

cent in the public mind. The persons who planned, conducted, and supported, the undertaking, have no need of our praise: the facts speak so forcibly for themselves, that any attempt to strengthen them would perhaps produce the contrary effect. We shall therefore proceed to our accustomed office, as reviewers.

The Man of the World has one particular feature, which, though flightly touched in almost every theatrical piece, is in none of them to be found so prominent, bold, and masterly: we mean political profligacy, which is made the subject of the piece; and here we are led to reflect that perhaps no more certain test, or marking characteristic, of the times can any where be found, than that a government, having the power of suppressing the piece, should permit it to be performed. Great confidence, indeed, must have been placed in the sluggish state of the national pulse, or this could not have happened. Pertinax Macfycophant is a Scotchman of mean origin, who has 'bowed' himself into great wealth and political influence, He is the paralite of the great, the tyrant of his family and dependents, and the indefatigable promoter of his own ambition by every means in his power, however vile. He has discarded his eldest son for being a man of principle; and withes to bargain away his youngest to the daughter, or rather to the contingencies, of Lord Lumbercourt; from which Lord he and his descendants are to receive, in return, all the hereditary effates, together with three boroughs, the members of which he himfelf is to nominate.

This odious character is contrasted with that of his youngest son, who had taken the name of Egerton, and who opposes the depravity of these projects. One chief cause of this opposition is his love for Constantia; a semale dependant, educated by his mother:—but, as the son is possessed of much principle, though not of enough, he likewise affords opposition from a less selfish motive. The subject was well and virtuously imagined, and is in many instances finely executed. The political profligate is exposed to much of the odium which he merits: we say much, for all is perhaps beyond the power of poetry itself to pourtray. The sollowing scene contains satire which is inimitable, and history which, however detestable, is daily verified:

Acr. II. Euter Lass Maciveophant to Mr. Egerton.

Law Mac. [regress compared and it irrei] Dear child, I am glades fee you: why did you not come to town verterday to attend the levee? your tather is incented to the uttermod at your not being there.

your father is incensed to the uttermod at your not being there.

**Egen. [Wire great sourceré] Madam, it is with extreme regret I tell you, that I can no longer be a flave to his temper, his politics, and his scheme of marrying me to this woman—therefore you had

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better consent at once to my going out of the kingdom, and my taking

Confiantia with me, for without her I never can be happy.

· · Lady Mac. As you regard my peace, or your own character, I beg you will not be guilty of so rath a step.—You promised me you meker would marry her without my consent.—I will open it to your father-Pray, dear Charles, be ruled.-let me prevail.

Sir Pertinax [Without, in great anger.]

Sir Per. Sir, wull ye do as ye are bid—and haud your gab, you rascal.—You are so sfull of gab, you scoundrel.—Take the chesnut gelding, I say, and return to town directly, and see what is become of my Lord Lumbercourt.

Lady Mac. Here he comes—I will get out of his way.—But I beg. Charles, while he is in this ill humour that you will not oppose him, let him say what he will-when his passion is a little cool, I will re-

turn, and try to bring him to reason: but do not thwart him. Eger. Madam, I will not. [Exit Lady Mac.

Sir Per. [Without] Here, you Tomlins, where is my fon Egerton?

Tom. [Without] In the library, fir.

Sir Per. [Without] As foon as the lawyers come, be fure bring me word. [Enters with great baughtiness, and in anger. Egerton bows two or three times most submissively low. Weel, fir !-vary weel !wary weel !- are nat ye a fine spark? are nat ye a fine spark, I say? -ah! you are a ---! So you would not come up till the levee?

* Eger. Sir, I beg your pardon-but-I was not very well; be-

fides I did not think my presence there was necessary.

Sir Per. [Snapping bim up] Sir, it was necessary-I tauld you it was necessary - and, fir, I must now tell you, that the whole tenor of your conduct is most offensive.

Eger. I am forry you think so, sir; I am sure I do not intend to

offend you.

Sir Per. I care not what you intend.—Sir, I tell you, you do offend. What is the meaning of this conduct, fir? neglect the lewee! -s'death, sir, you -what is your reason, I say, for thus neglecting the levee, and disobeying my commands?

Eyer. [With a stiffed, filial resentment.] Sir, I am not used to levees; nor do I know how to dispose of myself, - nor what to say, or

do, in such a situation.

Sir Per. [With a proud, angry resentment.] Zounds fir, do you mat fee what others do? gentle and simple,—temporal and spiritual,—lords, members, judges, generals, and bishops,—aw crowding, bustling, and pushing foremost intill the middle of the circle, and there waiting, watching, and striving to catch a look or a smile fra the great mon,-which they meet wi' an amicable reefibility of aspect—a modest cadence of body, and a conciliating co-operation of the whole mon,—which expresses an officious promptitude for his fervice—and indicates, that they luock upon themselves as the suppliant appendages of his power, and the enlisted Swiss of his polectical fortune;—this, sir, is what you ought to do,—and this, sir, is what I never once omitted for these five and thraty years,—let who would be minister.

· Eger. [Afice] Contemptible!

Sir Per. What is that you mutter, fir?

Eger. Only a flight reflection, fir, not relative to you.

Sir Per. Sir, your absenting yourself fra the levee at this juncture is suspections; it is looked upon as a kind of disaffection,—and aw your countrymen are highly offended at your conduct,—for, fir, they do not look upon you as a friend or as a well-wisher either to Scotland or Scotchmen.

Eger. [With a quick quarmth.] Then, fir, they wrong me, I affure you,—but pray, fir, in what particular can I be charged—

either with coldness or offence to my country?

* Sir Per. Why, fir, ever fince your mother's uncle, Sir Stanly Egerton, left you his three thousand pounds a year, and that you have, in compliance with his will, taken up the name of Egerton, they think you are grown proud;—that you have estranged your self fra the Macsycophants—have associated with your mother's family—with the opposeetion, and with those who do not with well till Scotland; besides, sir, the other day, in a conversation at dinner at your consin Campbel M'Kenzis's, before a whole table-full of your ain relations, did not you publicly with a total extinguishment of aw party, and of aw national distinctions whatever, relative to the three kingdoms?—[With great anger.] And you blockhead—was that a prudent wish before so many of your ain countrymen?—or was it a still language to hold before me?

* Eger. Sir, with your pardon I cannot think it unfilial or imprudent. [Who a right patrictic evarmeth.] I own I do wish—most ardently with for a total extinction of all party: particularly—that those of English, Irish, and Scotch might never more be brought into contest or competition, unless, like loving brothers, in generous emula-

tion, for one common caute.

* S.: Per. How, fir! de you perfil? what!—would you banish aw party, and aw diffication between English, Irish, and your ain countrymen?

* Eger, [With great dignity of lightit.] I would, fir.

Sir Per. Then damn you, fir,—you are not true Scot—Ay, fir, you may look as angry as you will,—but again I fay—you are not true Scot.

- * Ester. Your pardon, fir, I think he is the true Scot, and the true citizen, who withes equal justice to the merit and demerit of every fablect of Great Britain; among I whom I know but of two diffiretions.
 - · Si. Per. Weel fir, and what are those? what are those?

. Eger. The knave and the beneal man.

• S. P.r. Phaw I ridicections.

* Eggs. And he, who makes any other—let him be of the North, or of the South—of the Eath, or of the Weil—in place, or out of place—is an enemy to the whole, and to the virtues of humanity.

* Sie Poe. Ay, fir, this is your brother's impudent dectrine—for the which, I have a wished him for ever fra my presence, my heart, and my fortune.—Sie, I will have no fon of mine, because truly he has been educated in an English seminary, presume, under the make Macklin's Man of the World; and Love à la Mode. 417 of candour, to speak against his native land, or against my principles.

· Eger. I never did, nor do I intend it.

Sir Per. Sir, I do not believe you.—I do not believe you.—But, fir, I know your connections and affociates; and I know too, you have a faucy, lurking prejudice against your ain country:—you hate it;—yes, your mother, her family, and your brother, fir, have aw the fame, dark, disaffected rankling; and, by that and their politics together, they will be the ruin of you—themselves—and of ail who connect with them.—However, nai mair of that now;—I will talk at large to you about that anon.—In the mean while, fir—notwithfanding your contempt of my advice, and your disobedience till my commands, I will convince you of my paternal attention till your welfare, by my management of this voluptuary—this Lord Lumbercourt,—whose daughter you are to marry. You ken, fir, that the fellow has been my patron above these five and thraty years.

Eger. True, ur.

* Sir Per. Vary weel.—And now, fir, you fee, by his prodigality, he is become my dependent; and accordingly I have made my bargain with him:—the devil a baubee he has in the world but what comes through these clutches—for his whole estate, which has three implicit boroughs upon it,—mark—is now in my custody at nurse;—the which estate, on my paying off his debts, and allowing him a life rent of sive thousand pounds per annum, is to be made over till me for my life, and at my death is to descend till ye and your issue.—The peerage of Lumbercourt, you ken, will follow of course.—So, sir, you see there are three impleceit boroughs, the whole patrimony of Lumbercourt, and a peerage at one slap. Why it is a stroke—a hit—a hit—Zounds! sir, a mon may live a century and not make sic an a hit again.

* Eger. It is a very advantageous bargain indeed, fir:-but what

will my lord's family fay to it?

* Sir Per. Why, mon, he cares not if his family were aw at the devil so his luxury is but gratisted:—only let him have his race-horse to seed his vanity—his harridan to drink drams with him, scratch his face, and burn his periwig, when she is in her maudlin hysterics,—and three or sour discontented patriotic dependents to abuse the ministry, and settle the affairs of the nation, when they are aw intoxicated; and then, sir,—the sellow has aw his wishes and aw his wants—in this world—and the next.'

In act III. the father and fon have another similar scene; in which Sir Pertinax, to excite the ambition of Egerton, gives him the history of the art of bowing, as practised in his own person. This scene is perhaps superior to that which we have above quoted; though it is a difficult point to determine. The same spirit pervades act IV. where corruption is exemplified and made active, by the resusal of Counsellor Eitherside to suffer Lord Lumbercourt, his client, to sign the deeds, till Sir Pertinax has bribed him, and promised to bring him in as a member for one of the boroughs.

Macklin's Man of the World; and Love à la Mode.

the close of this act, Sir Pertinax has an admirable foliwhen driven almost frantic, by the firm refusal of his marry the lady and proftitute his political printiples. cunning and character of Sir Pertinax are again mainthrough the fifth act. With him, indeed, the grand of the comedy rests; and it will be no exaggeration to at, fo far as he individually is concerned, the stage anor modern contains but few portraits equally bold, well d, and effectually moral. It has indeed one glaring deinto which we fincerely lament that the author should allen; it is national, and is fedulous to cast a heavy cloud loquy over a race of men who, though often greatly vihave frequently exhibited the fublimest virtue and the It powers of mind. It is also but too evident that Mr. lin knew better how to delineate vice than virtue. Egerbidney, Lady Rodolpha, and all his virtuous characters, ito a cowardly defertion of their principles, and affirm is foreign to their hearts. To be over-awed by the despot, ertinax, was unworthy of them: but Sydney, who is the priest as it were of virtue, in the family, says yes and no, act contradiction to his principles, to the very chamber-

There are blemishes which it is incumbent on us to.

There are others of less moment; such as the assumed rity of Lady Rodolpha, the verbose loquacity of Mrs.

ART. XV. Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London.
For the Year MDCCXCIII. Part I. 4to. 8s. sewed. Elmsley.

NATURAL HISTORY, &c.

Description of the Double-borned Rhinoceros of Sumatra. By Mr. William Bell, Surgeon at Bencoolen.

MR. B. gives a particular description, illustrated by three drawings, of the shape, size, and parts of this rhinoceros: of his manners the writer of the paper seems to have gathered no intelligence. It appears that the hide is not so good a substitute for desensive armour in this as in the other species.

Description of a Species of Chatodon, called by the Malays, Ecan Bonna. By the same.

The skeleton of this fish, of which Mr. B. gives a figure, is marked by one very singular circumstance; many of the bones have tumors which are not exostoses from disease, but are always sound in this fish. The purpose of these enlargements is not obvious. They are spongy, soft, and sull of oil.

Account of some Discoveries made by M. Galvani of Bologna; with Experiments and Observations on them. In two Letters from M. Volta to Mr. Cavallo.

Dr. Galvani's treatife on the power of electricity to excite muscular motion, different papers in the Italian journals, and, still more, Dr. Valli's letters, as they successively appeared in the Journal de Physique, drew the attention of philosophers to an order of sacts apparently altogether new. M. Volta's purpose in these letters is to give a sketch of this discovery, as far as it had been carried in Italy, at the time of their date; and, as experiments relating to the same subject are likely to fall frequently under our notice, it will be proper, by way of introduction to suture intelligence, to give a sull account of the present communication.

Dr. Galvani, having prepared a frog so that the legs were connected with the lower part of the spine (separated from the rest of the body,) only by the crural nerves laid bare, observed that very lively movements were excited in the legs, whenever sparks were drawn under certain circumstances, from the prime conductor of an electrical machine, not on the body of the animal, but on any other substance. The necessary circumstances were, that the prepared frog should be in contact with, or placed near to, some pretty large piece of metal or other good conductor of electricity. The experiment succeeded better when the animal lay between two conducting substances, one placed near the legs, and the other near the dissected nerves;

^{*} These letters are written in French.

Philosophical Transactions, Part 1. fer 1793.

vas advantageous to make the former of thefe fubflances nicate with the floor. Dr. G. was, in M. Volta's opinore aftonished at this phenomenon than he ought to en. M. Volta easily and fatisfactorily explains it from ration of electrical atmospheres; it being well known e electrical fluid of conducting fubftances, when they ed near charged bodies, is repelled, and kept displaced, as the charge continues. Now it is the repelled fluid, returns and traverses the frog, at the moment when the conductor is discharged, by taking from it a spark that these very brisk anticular movements. No one, howas M. Volta allows, could have expected beforehand electrical thream, fo weak as to produce no effect on it fensible electrometer, should so convulse the animal If the prime conductor be large, and highly charged, its diffance from conducting bodies, laid at a little interm each other on a table, be not considerable, the refiream will become evident by sparks passing between ties on the table; and a frog, a newt, a sparrow, or any nimal, will be feized with convultions, especially in the the returning fiream passes along them. M. Volta that a charge, which he ellimates only at the or 111 of co of Mr. Cavallo's electrometer, produced mulcular conof a diffected frog, and then brought into contact, the movements are seen in the limb. This M. Volta imputes to a
small electrical discharge which takes place between the metals,
but which is too inconsiderable to effect any electrometer.

Of the truth of this explanation, no person, acquainted with
Mr. Bennet's experiments, will be inclined to doubt.—M.

Volta observed the same movements to be produced by passing
a bit of tin-foil on the back of an entire frog, then pressing a
piece of silver gently against the belly, and making it slide
along till it touched the tin-foil. This effect is more distinctly seen if the head of the frog be first cut off, and a pin be
plunged into the spinal marrow; because then these movements
are not liable to be consounded with the voluntary movements

of the living animal.

In his fecond letter, M. Volta describes experiments on various animals, which shew that when a communication is made between different metals applied to different parts of the same muscle, spasmodic movements are perceived. Hence he concludes that when two plates of metal, applied to the fame nerve or muscle, are made to communicate by a conductor of electricity, and produce convultions, there cannot be in this case any resemblance to the discharge of a Levden phial. applying a piece of tin-foil and a bit of filver leaf to corresponding parts of the thighs of a frug, and on making a communication between the metals, contractions take place. Now Leyden jars cannot be discharged by establishing a communication between their homologous surfaces.—No effect follows the application of two pieces of the fame metal to two muscles, or two different parts of the same muscle, and making a commumication.—The class of the vermes in general, and some insects in their caterpillar state, M. Volta found incapable of being affected either by armour of different metals, or by moderate sparks or shocks of artificial electricity.-Infects, however, in their perfect state, are very susceptible of this influence: for if the head of a fly, of a butterfly, or of a beetle, be cut off, and the corflet flit open, and then a bit of tin-foil be thrust near the neck deep into the flit, and a bit of filver a little way below, and the two metals be brought into contact within the body of the infect, the legs will begin to dance; and the other parts, even the trunk, will be thrown into agitation. The chirping of the grashopper may be thus excited.—The voluntary muscles alone are susceptible of being actuated by two different metals: but these are so susceptible, that a slice of flesh, cut from an animal killed an hour before, if not quite cold, is affected.

Perhaps there is scarcely one of our readers who has not selt the acid taste produced by applying two metals, especially zinc

424 Heron's Translation of Niebuhr's Travels:

be considered as so many suburbs: They are distinct cities, divided by the Gulf from the capital. Ejub is the only suburb belonging to it. And if we take in only the city of Constantinople, and this suburb, it is considerably inferior in extent to either London or Paris. I durst not measure it geometrically: but, counting my steps as I walked round it, I found its circumference to be 2600 paces.

* Constantinople appears larger than it really is: for, as the houses rise upon the sides of hills, they present themselves in the sorm of an amphitheatre, and thus appear to spread over a wide extent of ground. Towards the sea, however, the city consists of new houses, and is receiving continual additions. Of late, they have even encroached upon the harbour and filled up some part of it, in order to gain

ground for new buildings.

It would be hard to fix the number of the inhabitants: It is always flated too high, from a mistake incident to travellers, in estimating the population of the cities of the East. They regard those cities as equally populous, in proportion to their extent, with those of Europe. But the houses in the East are low. Persons in easy circumstances, chuse to have a large area behind their houses. The palaces of the great, with their gardens and seraglios, occupy much

ground.

It is not less a missake to judge of the population of those cities, by the numbers of people who are constantly busy in the streets. The jealousy of the people of the East renders them unwilling to receive persons with whom they have business, in their houses. On this account, the artisans work without doors, and spend the whole day in open places. The streets are full of joiners, ironmongers, gold-smith, jewellers, &c. busy in the exercise of their several trades. Thousands of workmen come in the mornings, work all the day in the streets of Condentinople, and return in the evening to their houses in the country. If the same modes of life prevailed in Europe, and the greater number of the artisans and workmen about our great cities lived in the country, these would then appear much more populous than at present.

Whatever be its population, Constantinople exhibits a delightful prospect. Its harbour, one of the finest in the world, is always full of vessels. The medley of superb mosques and palaces, gardens and trees of all ferts, which the city displays, appears remarkably firiking to a stranger. But within, the arrangement and appearance of the city correspond not to its splendour when seen from a distance. The streets are almost all narrow, dirty, and irregular; the house are of wood, slight, and ill built, and appear more-like coops for birds than dwellings for men. Of the palaces built of stone, nothing is to be seen but the high walls that surround them. In this city, it is equally dangerous to live in stone and in wooden houses. In the former, one is liable to be builed in ruins, by earthquakes; in the latter, to be burned by the breaking out of a fire:—These two species of awful events being equally frequent at Constantinople.

The feragilo of the Grand signior is a vast but very irregular editice. I was not permitted to approach farther into it than the outer court. But, what I saw was enough to give me a very high

Heron's Translation of Niebuhr's Travels.

idea of the rest. I could learn nothing concerning this gate (porta) of the seraglio, that might serve to account for the origin of the very improper denomination of Ottoman Porte, which is applied in Europe to the Court of the Grand Signior. Kapu, in the Turkish language, signifies both a gate and a palace. But, when they speak of going to the Porte at Constantinople, the palace of the Grand Visit is always meant, where all business is transacted, as well what regards the might be rejected.

with foreign ministers.

' The city is plentifully supplied with water, from three Beuts of refervoirs, fituated at the distance of three German leagues. A Beut is a refervoir in a valley, into which water is conducted from the higher grounds circumjacent, and there confined by a strong wall. The water collected in this manner is conveyed into the town by aqueducts, which have been constructed at a vast expence, in consequence of the ground being so unequal. It is not to the Greek emperors that the Turks owe these noble works. One of them was raised by Sultan Mabmoud; and another upon the north side, with the branches communicating with it, was but lately constructed by Sultan Multapha, who was on the throne when I was at Constantinople. As this water cannot be equally distributed through the whole city, on account of the inequality of the ground, water houses are established in proper places, from which it is served out to every person gratis. Opposite to the outer gate of the seraglio, is a house splendidly decorated, where persons paid by the public, present water to

the passengers, in vessels of gilt copper.

This capital of a great empire is almost destitute of means of defence. A double wall, and a ditch nearly filled up, are all its fortifications. The Turks trust for the security of the city to sour castles, built upon the two channels which terminate in the sea of Marmora, and communicating one of them with the Archipelago, and the other with the Black Sea. Those castles, known by the name of the Dardanelles, are but of little moment. But the channels are so narrow and crooked, that a fleet which were to attempt to fail up either, even with the most favourable wind, could hardly escape being sunk by the discharge of the batteries. The best mode of attacking Constantinople by sea, would be to block up the mouth of the channels, and thus deprive the city of the supplies of provisions which it receives

from the Archipelago.

The city of Galata, surrounded with a strong wall, and rising apon a steep height over against Constantinople, is extremely populous. All the European traders, and many of the Eastern Christians live there. Pera is a suburb to Galata. In it reside the ambastaders of such Christian powers as send public ministers to the Porte. The deputies which come by turns from Algiers, Tunis, Tripeli, and Ragusa, lodge at Constantinople. But the Tarks consider not these leputies as ambassadors; nor yet the Kapu Kiajas, who manage the affairs of the princes of Walachia, and Moldavia.

*The Sultan has many houses of pleasure, both in the neighbourmod of the capital, and on the shores on the channel of the Black
Sea. But the reigning Sultan goes no where but to Kara Agadish.

Rev. Aug. 1793.

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Heron's Translation of Niebuhr's Travels.

of his mind. He is suffering the others to fall into ruins; caused several of them to be pulled down, and the materials

mployed in building public baths and mosques.

he Greeks have three and twenty churches in Conflantinople, a Armenians three; exclusive of those which the two nations in the suburbs. A clergyman resides at Pera, on whom the onfers the pompous title of Archbishop, placing him at the f a great many imaginary bishops. By the laws, no strange suffered to build houses of prayer in the capital. Yet, several old-their meetings there, without being checked by Govern-

om Constantinople the travellers failed to Rhodes, and to Alexandria, where they arrived September 26th. are few remains of the ancient magnificence of this ated city, except the Obelist of Chopatra, the Pillar of y, and a Mosque, which, in the time of the Greek Emwas a church dedicated to St. Athanasius. Of the trade, ers, and selicity of the Alexandrians at present, the gives no very savourable account.

etta was the next place to which they fleered; and in ty they remained but a short time before they fet fail for

Cairo, where they arrived in November.

this season, (says the author,) when the country is all verdant, ry pleasant to sail up the Nile. A number of villages are seas-

translator, who refers us to that of Mr. Bruce, as more complete.

The hihabitants of Babeira, between Damietta and Ghassa, says our author,

Being poor and independent, are to be dreaded equally by land

and by water. They rob all travellers, without distinction.

'Egypt seems at present quite a desart in comparison with what it was in the days of antiquity. - When, however, we reflect on the revolutions which this country has undergone, and upon the length of time during which it has been under the dominion of strangers; we can no longer be furprized at the decline of its wealth and population. It has been successively subdued by the Persians, the Greeks; the Romans, the Arabians, and the Turks:—has enjoyed no interval of tranquillity and freedom; but has constantly been oppressed and pillaged by the lieutenants of a distant lord. Those usurpers and their servants having no other views but to draw as large a revenue as possible from an opulent province, scarce left the people bare means of subsistence. Agriculture was ruined by the miseries of the husbandmen; and the cities decayed with its decline. Even at present, the population is decreasing; and the peasant, although in a fertile country, is miserably poor; for the exactions of Government, and its officers, leave him nothing to lay out in the improvement and culture of his lands; while the cities are falling into ruins, because the same unhappy re-Reaints render it impossible for the citizens to engage in any lucrative undertaking.'

In the description of the city of Cairo, we have an account of a building called Mouritan, which ' is a large hospital for the fick and mad. Those of the former class are not numerous, considering the extent of the city. The fick were formerly provided with every thing that could tend to foothe their diffress, not excepting even mulic. From the infufficiency of the funds to supply so great an expence, the music has been retrenched, but has been fince restored by the charity of a private person: - perhaps, on a supposition that it has healing powers. The medicina musica has often been in tavour; it was the grand panacea of Atclepundes. We have Pfalmody indeed in most of our hospitals: but, in Italy, the samous tonserva-tories, or music schools, of Naples and Venice were originally called hospitals. We surmerly extracted from the Danish edition of this work, an account of the music of the East *, in which it appears that this art and its profession are treated with such contempt, that it is difficult to account for the bonour done to music by its expensive admission into the hospital at Cairo.

The description of the Mikkins or Nilometer will probably be acceptable to our readers, in addition to the particulars

[·] Appendix to vol. liii. p. 580.

Heron's Translation of Niebuhr's Travels.

we extracted from Norden, in the 15th vol. of the , p. 356.

een Mafr-el-atik (or old Cairo) and Geefh, in the middle of , is the ifle of Rodda, which formerly communicated with o cities by two bridges of boats, that no longer sublist. In ishing days of Fostat, the island was covered with gardens But unce Cairo has become the capital of Egypt, Mair-Bulak, and even Birket-el-Hadgi, are preferred as fituations

ens and villas.

illand thews, at prefent, nothing remarkable, except, that on ern extremity, flands a wall, which has been built to break of the current. Upon this extremity stands also a mosque, is the famous Mikkias or Nilometer. This is well known bason having a communication with the Nile, on the of which stands a column that serves to indicate the height of ers of the river. Norden has given a draught of it, firer original, which is mouldering fast away; for the Turks will ut the smallest expence, even upon the most necessary repairs. ow not whether any person has yet measured the breadth of . By a geometrical operation, I found it to be 2946 seet. knowing this measure, one can form no idea of the astonishs of water which this river carries down, when in its full

Nile, it is well known, begins every year to rife about the of June, and continues riving about 40 or 50 days; it then degrees, till, in the end of May, next year, it is at the height at which the canals are permitted to be unlocked; the usual tax is then paid for the waters, to the Sultan, and a good year expected.

The canal at Cairo is first opened, and then, successively, all the other great canals down to the sea. The inhabitants of no particular district dare draw off any part of the water of the Nile, although it has risen to the height that best suits the inlands; for this would injure the higher grounds: and therefore every body must wait till the public order be given out. There are laws in Egypt, which are strictly observed, and which determine the distribution of the waters, and the time when the large and small canals are to be opened.

Between the dyke of the canal of Cairo, and the Nile, a pillar of earth is raised, nearly of the height to which the waters of the rivers are expected to rife. This pillar is called Anes, or the bride, and serves as a fort of Nilometer, for the use of the common people. When the waters enter the canal, this bride is carried away by the current. A like custom, which prevailed among the ancient Egyptians, has subjected them to the imputation of facrificing every year a virgin to the Nile.'

The present government of Egypt, as far as the author was able to investigate its Arcana, seems at once despotic and popular. A governor is indeed fent from Constantinople, but he is frequently deposed by the inhabitants. The Beys, or Princes of different districts, are appointed by the Sultan of the Turks, but the Egyptians propose the candidates, and he dares not reject them; his nomination is therefore mere ceremony.'

The present Beys have been almost all slaves, bought for fifty or not more than a hundred fequins.—The government of this country is frequently disturbed by insurrections. Cairo is constantly convulled by cruel diffentions; parties are continually jarring; and the Great retain troops to decide their differences by force of arms.

The mutual jealousies of the chiefs seem to be the only causes which still preserve to the Porte the shadow of authority over this country.—The members of the aristocracy are all afraid of losing their influence under a residing sovereign; and therefore agree in oppofing the elevation of any of their own body to the supreme dignity.'

In the author's chapter on Egyptian agriculture, we have a melancholy proof of the degeneracy of the inhabitants of that country, whence Greece, and many of the great empires of antiquity, are supposed to have derived the chief part of their knowlege and inventions.

Irrigation, or the art of watering the higher grounds to which the overflowing of the Nile does not extend, and incubation, or the art of hatching chickens in ovens, by artificial heat, are the chief inventions of the modern Egyptians, which seem to merit the attention of travellers.

I saw no wheeled carriages (says M. Niebuhr) in Egypt; every thing is conveyed backwards and forwards on camels or affes. the

Heron's Translation of Niebuhr's Travels.

of Cairo was to be cleanfed, a peafant brought two oxen a fort of open tray upon the dry ground, and when it was them with it to the bank. Within the city, where the f the canal was not dry, the persons employed in cleaning dust from the street upon the mire in the canal, and then, r hands, into paniers upon affes, and thus removed it to a " flance. Such is the boafted industry of the Egyptians. in good ve feen neither wind nor water-mill here. A few large mills. , which are moved by oxen turning a post that forms the of a large wheel. The poorer people have only hand mills to a ir corn; and thefe they use also in breaking the beans with affes are fed.

author's chapter on the Trade of Egypt is curious and ve; as are the subsequent chapters on the Copts and language; on the wild Arabians, or Bedouins, in on the dreft, divertions, games, mulic, dancing, pubs and marriages, of the regyptians; but from feweral of apters we have given extracts in former volumes of the

already cited.

author's reflections on, rather than descriptions of, Antiquities in general, are valuable for their intelliid good talte.

Niebuhr feems to speak of the stupendous Pyramids. described, with more moderation and probability than

four hundred and forty feet. I was surprised to find the result of my measurement so different from what many other than there had given out to be the height of this pyramid; and was for some time uneasy about communicating it to the public. Upon my return to Europe, I found in the Description of the plains of Heliopolis and Memphis by Mr. Fourment, the following passage: "Lord Charlemont, who arrived in Egypt, while I was there, told me, that he had measured the height of the foremost pyramid, and assured me, that it was only four hundred and forty-sour feet." The agreement of this measurement with my own, rendered me less doubtful of the correctness of my operations.

Those enormous masses are built of soft calcareous stone, of the same nature as the rock on which they stand. It is presumeable, then, that all the polished stone has been taken from the same place, and wrought at a small expense. The sondness for the marvellous, therefore, so common to travellers, has caused them to magnify the expense and labour which those mountains of hewn stone must have cost. With the help of natural philosophy and natural history, wone

ders of all kinds are reduced to their true value.

To enhance the high ideas which they hold out, of the magnificence of those monuments, various writers represent the pyramids as having been once coated upon the outside with marble. But, of this, I could not, by any pains, discover the slightest vestige. Beside the third pyramid, indeed, some pieces of granite are to be seed; but these are neither large, nor numerous enough, to afford reason for supposing, that even one pyramid could be covered with them. Those blocks might perhaps serve as ornaments, and might possibly bear the inscriptions, of which none are, at present, discernible on the pyramids.

I entered the foremost pyramid, and examined the large chamber, with the caster in it, of which all travellers speak. But I did not see the second chamber, which was discovered immediately after our departure, by Mr. Davison, who had accompanied Mr. Montague into Egypt. That chamber is thirty seet above the first, and as

arge, but not fo lofty in the roof.

The famous Sphinx is finking still deeper in the sand; and a great part of the body is already buried. It seems to be formed out of the rock upon which the pyramid stands; a circumstance which confirms my conjecture concerning the place from which the stones for building the pyramids were quarried. I found the chin of the Sphinx to measure ten seet six inches in height; and the whole length of the countenance nearly eighteen seet.

The memory of the authors of these stupendatous and fantastic monuments has been lost some thousand years since: the pyramids are visibly decaying, and must perish in their turn; although, if we may judge of the suture by the past, several thousand years must

clapse before their entire decay.'

The author terminates his account of Egypt by reflections on the hieroglyphics; these, however, though ingenious and intelligent, leave this mysterious subject in the same inexplicable G g 4 obscurity

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rity in which it has so long remained, and, in all probawill for ever remain. The pains taken by M. Niebuhr pying hieroglyphics and ancient inferiptions in Egypt furpals belief, if they had not been engraved in the Gerand French editions of this work. er continuing during nearly two years in Egypt, the tras prepared to quit Cairo, and to proceed to Arabia, the chief of their voyage: but, as Christians are prohibited from ling thither by land with the caravans for Mecca, they great difficulty formed a small caravan of their own, with private merchants and individuals, and fet off for Sucz, 28th, 1762. perpetual fear of being plundered by wild Arabs, they led through a country absolutely defart; where, * for the of three and twenty leagues, neither houses, water, nor nallest spot of verdure was to be seen.' z is a small city which had no existence in the end of the

the century. It is first mentioned in the beginning of steenth century, and is therefore to be considered as a city dern origin. The houses are mean, and the inhabitants. The ground lying around it is all one bed of rock, by covered with sand. Scarcely a plant is to be seen any in the neighbourhood. Trees, gardens, meadows, and

are entirely unknown at Suez.

able to translate the inscriptions which they found, it is not

yet fettled in what language they have been engraved *.

October 10th, the travellers, after many difficulties and delays, quitted Suez, and fet sail on the Red Sea for Jidda. Here, speaking of the custom-house dues, the author informs us that the English are particularly savoured, even more than the subjects of the Sultan: they pay only 8 per cent. while others pay 12 or 15, and are suffered to discharge this in goods; whereas all others must produce money. Mr. Bruce's account of the town, trace, customs, and manners of the inhabitants of Jidda, is so much more ample and amuling than that of the author before us, that we shall give no extract from the chapter concerning that place:—but of Loheia and Mokha, and of the rest of Arabia in general, M. Niebuhr's accounts are so much more satisfactory, that Mr. Bruce himself frequently refers to them.

The territory of Loheia, (says M. Niebuhr,) is arid and barren. The harbour is so indifferent, that even the smallest vessels are obliged to anchor at a great distance from the city; and, when the tide is not at ebb, laden boats cannot approach near it. — Several of the houses of Loheia are built of stone; but the greater part are huts constructed in that fashion which is common among the Arabs. The walls are of mud mixed with dung; and the roof is thatched with a fort of grass which is very common here. Around the walls, within, are (is) a range of beds made of straw, on which, notwithstanding their simplicity, a person may either sit or ly (lie) commodiously enough.'—

Of the inbabitants of Loheia, the author writes thus:

From all that we saw, and from all that besel us in this city, we judged the inhabitants to be curious, intelligent, and polished in their manners. All were eager to see the Europeans, and the wonders which they performed. After we had employed a porter, those who had no other pretext upon which they might obtain admission to us, pretended to consult our physician. One asked him to feel his pulse, and to tell him what medicines or regimen he stood in need of; while

another enquired, how it came that he could not sleep?

We had one opportunity of learning their ideas of the benefits to be derived from medicine. Mr. Cramer (our physician) had given a scribe a vomit, which operated with extreme violence. The Arabs being struck at its wonderful effects, resolved all to take the same excellent remedy; and the reputation of our friend's skill thus became very high among them. The Emir Bahr, or inspector of the port, sent one day for him; and as he did not go immediately, the Emir soon after sent a saddle horse to our gate. Mr. Cramer, supposing that this horse was intended to bear him to the Emir, was going to mount him, when he was told, that this was the patient he was to cure. We luckily found out another physician in our party. Our Swedish servant had served among the hussar troops in his native country, and in that service had learned some knowledge of the diseases of horses.

[•] See Bishop Clayton's conjecture on this subject, Rev. vol. viii. June :753. p.4:7.

He offered to cure the Emir's horse, and succeeded. The cure rendered him famous; and he was often sent for afterwards to human patients. The Arabian physicians extend their care equally to men and

horses, and even to all other creatures.

When we shewed our microscopes to Emir Farhan at the custom-house, the other Arabs were all assonished as well as he, to see the fize of the insects so much magnified. A servant, who saw one of those magnified insects, said that they were the growth of Europe, and that those of Arabia, were, in comparison, exceedingly diminutive. But, nothing surprised the people of distinction more, than when they saw through a telescope, a woman walking; they could not conceive how it happened, that although she appeared topsy-turvy, yet her under garments did not turn about her ears, and exclaimed repeatedly, Allab Akbar, God is Great.

The children, observing that we gathered insects, brought great numbers, which they asked us to buy. Those who were grown up, shewed also many indications of a turn for industry, which, if properly directed and encouraged, might render this people a com-

mercial nation.

' Two Arabs came, one day, to see us eat. The one was a young nobleman of Sana, who had received a good education; the other a man of some consequence, from the province of Hachtan, where few itrangers are ever feen, and the greatest simplicity of manners fill prevails. When we invited them to dine with us, the latter earneally replied, "God preserve me from eating with insidels who believe not in God." When I asked him some particulars concerning his country, he replied, "What is my country to vot? "Do you want to conquer it?" He was aftonished at every thing he saw, our spoons, our plates, our forks. He asked some simple questions which excited laughter. He then went out in a passion, and his companion from Sana had some difficulty to persuade him back. When he came back, he faw whole fowls before us, which surprised the sober Arab not a little, as he imagined that we had exten too much before. When, at laft, he saw Mr. Von Haven about to carve one of these foals, he stepped forward, and seized him by the arm, taying, with a peevish tone, "What! wilt thou eat still !" He then went out in a rage, and would not return. The young man from Sana apologized for him, and begged us to excuse the simplicity of his country man.

Mr. Baurenhend and I fometimes divorted ourselves with playing on the viole, which led such as happened to overhear us, to think us mancians. A rich merchant sent for us to come with our inframents to his house. We resuled, because the Arabs look with contempt upon medicines by presented. The merchant, being old, and not able to wake so far, mounted in ass, and came with two servants showing and hearing him, to our house, in order to gratify his curiosty, by howing and hearing as. He was very polite, and anisted us, that he had no avended to Christians; for, that a diversity of religious was relevanted by God, the Greater of all. After time convertation, he came isle a with the course our sours, and hear us play upon them. We applied home isleems tenes, which are more so the take of Orientals,

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han our gayer mulic. He seemed to be pleased, and offered each of se half a c own at parting. The Arabs refuse no presents, however mall, and he was not a little surprised when we declined accepting his noney a especially as he could not conceive what inducements any

serion could have to learn mulic, if not to gain by it.

This merchant was one of those few who wear their beards dyed ed; a cultom which seems to be disapproved by the more judicious Arabs, His reason to us was, that a red beard was handsomer than white one; but others told us, that he had the weakness to think to onceal his age by this filly disguise. He told us, that he was above eventy years of age; but his acquaintance affirmed that he was not nder ninety. We had observed of the Mussulmans in general, howwer, that they feldom know their own age exactly. They reckon by the most remarkable incidents in their lives, and say, I was a hild when such an event happened, or when such a one was governor

f the province or city.

This merchant often afterwards invited us to his house, and beame at length fo familiar, as to entertain us with a detail of his adentures. If we might believe his story, he had enjoyed, one after nother, near an hu dred young and beautiful female slaves, all of rhom he had fold, given in marriage, or restored to liberty, after eeping them for some time. He had still two of these; and he would ie content, he faid, if he could only forget the frailty (infirmities) of ld aga now and then in their company; he offered to make our hytician a confiderable present, if he could restore him so much of he vigour of youth, as might qualify him for this enjoyment. snother merchant, who was fifty years of age, had promised our hysician an. hundred crowns, if he would give him some remedics o fit him for the enjoyment of some young and beautiful female leves, whom he had in a house at Mecca. But he was so exhausted y exce flive indulgence, that neither Mr. Cramer's prescription, nor et those of the su geons of some English ships, whom he had before consulted, could reffore his genial vigour.

The women of Loheia wear large veils in the street, which cover heir countenances so entirely, that only one of their eyes can be iscovered, and that but imperfectly. Yet they make no difficulty of nveiling before strangers, as they pass, especially if they happen to hink themselves pretty, and are sure that they are not observed by my of their countrymen. Mr. Baurenfiend made a drawing of one I those females. Her brow, cheeks, and chin, were ornamented rith black spots, impressed into the skin, and she had also her eyes

rtificially blackened.'

We find frequent complaints of excellive heat in the author's varrative: but the translator gives no thermometrical account If its degrees, though he mentions that the philosophers were in roffession of a thermometer. The latitude of Loheia is 15° of Beit el Fakih, 14° 31', whence M. Niebuhr fet off to lifit the coffee mountains: of which he gives the following ecount:

During my absence, Mr. Forskal (the botanist) had not been He upon the hills where the coffee is produced, whither he had gone

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to profecute his botanical refearches. His description of that part of the country had already induced Messes. Crainer and Baurensend to follow him: I also resolved to join my comrades, that I might breathe cooler air, and drink better water. The space I had to travel was only half a day's journey; and, in the course of this, I met with

nothing remarkable.

one of the foremost emirences. The roads are very bad: A cause-way was indeed formed by the Turks; but it has been suffered to fall away, without receiving any repairs. My friends, whom I had expected to find in this town, were in the gardens upon the hill. I came up with them, after travelling two hours longer, near Bulges, one of those villages whose inhabitants substitute upon the profits which their crops of cossee afford. Neither affes or mules can be used here: the hills are to be climbed by narrow and steep paths: Yet, in comparison with the parched plains of Tehama, the scenery seemed to me charming; as it was covered with gardens and plantations of cossee-trees.

In the neighbourhood of Kahhme I had feen only one small bafaltic hill; but here, whole mountains were composed chiefly of those columns. Such detached rocks formed grand objects in the landscape, especially where cascades of water seemed to ruth from their summits. The cascades, in such instances, had the appearance of being supported by rows of artificial pillars. These basaltes are of great utility to the inhabitants: the columns, which are cassly separated, serve as steps where the ascent is most difficult; and as materials for walls to support the plantations of cossee-trees, upon the

theep declivities of the mountains.

The tree which affords the coffee is well known in Europe; & that I need not here describe it particularly. The coffee-trees were all in slower at Bulgosa, and exhaled an exquisitely agreeable persume. They are planted upon terraces, in the form of an amphitheaut. Most of them are only watered by the rains that fall; but some, indeed, from large reservoirs upon the heights; in which spring water is collected, in order to be sprinkled upon the terraces; where the trees grow so thick together, that the rays of the sun can hardy enter among their branches. We were told, that those trees, thus becomes not fully ripe the second time; and the coffee of the second crop is always inserior in quality to that of the first.

Tehama, the houses, as well of the villages, as those which are scattered solitarily over the hills, are built of this material. Although not to be compared with the houses in Europe, for commodiousness or elegance, yet they have a good appearance; especially such of them as stand upon the heights, with beautiful gardens, and trees, ar-

ranged in the form of an amphitheatre, around them.

*Even at Bulgofa, we were greatly above the level of the plain which we had accorded: Yet, icarcely had we climbed half the after to Kajina, where the Dola (Governor) of this diffrict dwells, epos the loftieft peak of this range of mountains. Enchanting landfeapes, there meet the eye upon all fides.

. W.

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We passed the night at Bulgosa. Several of the men of the village came to see us; and, after they retired, we had a visit from our hostes, with some young women accompanying her, who were all very desirous to see the Europeans. They seemed less shy than the women in the cities: their faces were unveiled; and they talked reely with us. As the air is fresher and cooler upon these hills, the women have here a finer and fairer complexion than in the plain. Mr. Baurensiend drew a portrait of a young girl who was going to iraw water, and was desired in a shirt (shift) of linen, chequered blue and white. The top and the middle of the shirt, as well as the lower tart of her drawers, were embroidered with needle-work of differint colours.

On the 10th of March, we returned downwards as far as Hadie; place well known to the Europeans; who come hither from Beit el Fakih, to pass some time occasionally in this little town, where the ir is cool, and the water fresh and pure. It is, however, but ill-ruilt, and has nothing else of consequence, except its trade in coffee, which the inhabitants of the hills bring down upon certain days in the reek. After the duties are paid to the Dola, the coffee is packed up and conveyed upon camels, either to Beit el Fakih or directly to

Sodeida.

We enjoyed a fingular and beautiful prospect from the house of he Sub-Dola at Hadie, and returned in the evening to Beit el Fakih, by the same way by which we had gone, in our journey up the pountains.

In the travellers' journey from Loheia to Mokha, their latigues and hardships were but ill repaid by discoveries of any kind; except by correcting the erroneous ideas which they had probably formed of Arabia Felix from its name: for in a burney of more than two months, neither antiquities, arts, tiences, agriculture, nor any kind of cultivation, except the langle article coffee, appeared in their whole route. So ignarant are the inhabitants of this part of Yemen respecting the most common knowlege of clowns and peasants in Europe, that they have yet discovered no better method of selling a tree, than burning the roots.

M. Niebuhr has given a detail of the adventures and mifcertures which happened to him and his companions at Mokha. It was here that these philosophical travellers lost the first of their companions who died during the voyage; this was M. Von Maven, whose department seems to have been Antiquities and

Oriental literature.

He had been ill (fays M. Niebuhr) at Beit el Fakih, and became much worse here (at Mokha). After walking out in the cool of the evening, he was tolerably well through the night; but the heats the day he was quite unable to bear. At last, he ventured to ly several nights successively upon the roof of the house in the open ir, and with his sace uncovered. On the night of the 24th of May, accought cold, and was so ill in the morning, that it was necessary

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wo servants to carry him down into his apartment. His sever become doubly violent, and he was delirious by the evening. He sunk into a deep lethacgy, and expired in the night. He had paid more attention than any other of us, to oriental sitre. The public have lost, by his death, some very interesting veries, and some curious collections of this fort, which he had

The custom of interring the dead in a cossin, is unknown in Ara-We had one made, however, for our deceased friend, in order eserve his remains from any accident. The Captain of an Enship lent us six of his sailors to bear the body to the European ing place. All the English in Mokha attended at the funeral; he obsequies were performed with more decency, and with less uption, than those of a Consul at Cairo, which were disturbed a crowding of the people to witness the solemnity; and by the ery of the audacious Bedouins. On this occasion, the Arabs of an shewed themselves reasonable and humane.

the travellers, quitting Mokha on the 6th of June 1763, ed on the 13th at Taces, in their way to Sana, the capital rabia Felix. This is a confiderable city, and has a garof 600 men.

ohammedans have their faints as well as the Christians: The faint who has been assumed as the patron of the city of , (fays our author,) is the famous Ismael Mulk, who, according dirion, was once king of this country. His remains are build



They now returned to Mokha by a different route from that by which they had travelled to Sana.

On our way (fays M. Niebuhr) we met a wandering family, the first of this char eter that I saw in Yemen. They had no tents, but lived under trees with their asses, sheep, dogs, and sowls. I forgot to ask the name of this horde. But their mode of life is perfectly like that of our European gypsies. They are confined to no place, but go about the villages begging and stealing; and the poor peasants often give them something voluntarily, to remove them from their neighbourhood. A young girl of this company came to ask alma from us: Her sace was uncovered.

After describing the city of Mokha, which is built on a very dry and barren situation, and is ill fortissed, we have a circumstantial account of its trade: but for this we must refer to the end of the first volume, where it is inserted.

[To be continued in our next Review.]

ART. XVII. A Narrative of the Campaign in India, which terminated the War with Tippoo Sultan, in 1792. With Maps and Plans illustrative of the Subject, and a View of Seringapatam. By Major Dirom, Deputy Adjutant General of his Majesty's Forces in India. 4to. pp. 296. 11. 1s. Boards. Faden, &c. 1793.

THIS volume contains a very diffinct and amufing detail of the operations which closed the late Indian war; and the principal events of which appeared from time to time in the public prints, and must be fresh in the memories of most readers.

The intelligent author informs us that the drawing up of the narrative occupied his leifure during the voyage home from India; and furely he could not have found a more profitable method of beguiling the tedious time during such a period of inactive confinement, nor a situation more abstracted from interruption than in the seclusion of a cabin. It was an interesting professional undertaking to record the circumstances attending transactions in which he was personally engaged. Several officers, passengers in the same ship, contributed their shares of information; and his labours may be eminently useful to officers who may be called into suture service in the same climate and among the same people.

In his introduction, the Major prefaces his narrative with a fuccinct retrospect of the two prior campaigns of the war with Tippoo Sultan; and though the events of the third, which ended in the peace concluded under the walls of Seringapatam, may be too recent to interest the present reader, beyond what the mitcellaneous circumitances attending them may afford, yet many of these facts have a novelty in them which the

details of European warfare do not furnish.

The

The unwieldy appendages to an army, are cumbrious enough any where: but in the East they rise to an amount that must be as frightful to any territory which they with as a swarm of locusts; which may be gathered from the following account:

The followers of an army in India, on being reckoned at fine times the number of fighting men, will appear to be a moderate efficiency, on confidering the particular circumstances and customs of the

country.

The number of black people employed in the public departments is immense, particularly in charge of the cattle that carry the supplies soft the army, for which is required at the rate of one man for every two or three bullocks. This article, including the public and private cattle of the consederate armies, and of their brinjarries, the whole probably amounting to near half a million of cattle, may be reckoned to bring into the field one bundred thousand followers. The elephants, of which there were several hundred, and the camels several thousand, had also many attendants; and every horse in the cavalry and in the army, beside the trooper or rider, has two attendants, one who cleans and takes care of him, called the horse keeper, and the other the grass cutter, who provides his forage; and a number of bullocks with drivers, is, besides, required to carry grain for the horses. The palanquin and doely bearers, for the conveyance of the sick, are also a numerous class of followers.

Field officers, including the people who carry or have charge of their baggage, cannot have less than forty, captains taveny, and subalterns ten servants. The foldiers have also their attendants, particularly a cook to every mess; and the Sepoys, most of whom are married, have many of them, as well as of the followers, their fe-

milies with them in camp.

'The bazar people, or merchants, and their fervants, are allowery numerous; nor are the adventurers few who accompany as army, with no other view than to plunder in the enemy's country, and even they, far from being a nuifance, fearch for and dig up the pits of grain in the fields and villages, which would otherwise remain undiscovered, and bring in numbers of cattle that could by no

other means be collected in the country.

Early in the war, many of the Sepeys were prevailed upon to fond back their families, and other arrangements were made for reducing the number of followers; but those measures tended to create defertion, and to increase distress. In short, no man will carry his samily to camp, who does not find his convenience and advantage in doing so; no person will pay for servants he does not want, nor will followers attend an army without pay, who do not carn a living, which they can only do by contributing to its support. There are no towns to be depended upon for supplies; and an army in India, not only carries with it most of the means of its subsistence for several months, but also a variety of necessaries, which are exposed daily in the bazars like merchants in a fair: a scene altogether resembling more the emigration of a nation guarded by its troops, than the march of an army, fitted out merely with the intention to subdue as enemy.

When



When an army, increased to the extent of this immense model, ventures into the field, it is fortunate for it not to be opposed by a vigilant enemy aduated by the tactics of General Lloyd! Among other peculiarities in Indian warfare, we have adopted the practice of employing the strong and bulky elephant, though we avail ourselves of his powers more profitably than is usually done by our Oriental enemies. We have heard much of the great number of bullocks requifite for the army, to draw the artillery; we now, it seems, have found out the advantage of mortening the line of draught, by yoking them four abreaft, inflead of two: but above all, the use of the sagacious elephants. (rarely employed by us in former wars,) who, marching behind the heaviest cannon, are always ready to shove them on, and help them over every difficulty, has proved of fuch evident and effential advantage, that they will in future be confidered as of the first consequence in all operations that require a train of heavy artillery.

The great objection to elephants being employed with the army, was the difficulty of their subsistence, as it was supposed they could not live without a very large daily allowance of rice. This idea, which their keepers are interested and careful to inculcate, necessity and experience have fet afide. The elephant is not only the most powerful and most useful, but one of the most hardy animals that can be employed with an army. He carries a load equal to sixteen bullocks, and without risk of loss or damage on the march. He subsists upon the leaves or small branches of trees, on the sugar cane or the plantain tree: in short he lives upon forage which horses and bullocks do not eat; any kind of grain will support him, and he will work as long without grain as any other animal. The loss of elephants, although they had their full share of hardship and fatigue, was inconsiderable in proportion to that of cattle; and far from being an incumbrance, or an expedient of necessity to supply the want of bullocks, they will hereafter be considered as the first, and most essential class of cattle that ought to be provided for the carriage of an Indian army.' P. 113.

Having thus exhibited the equipage of the British army, as described by an officer who was in it, we will just take a glance

at the camp of its auxiliaries:

The Mahratta camp was at the distance of about fix miles from ours, and on approaching it, had the appearance of a large irregular town; for the chiefs pitch their standards, and take up their ground around their general, without order; and their tents being of all sizes, and of many different colours, at a distance resemble houses rather than canvas. The streets too, of their camp, crossing and winding in every direction, display a variety of merchandize, as in a great fair. There are shrofts [bankers], jewellers, smiths, mechanics, and people of every trade and description, as busily employed in their occupations, and attending as minutely to their interests, as if they were in Rev. Aug. 1793.

Poonah, and at peace. The Bombay detachment, advanced always at fome distance in their front, served as a piquet to their camp; and they had some outposts of their own, established more with a view to cover the supplies coming into their army, than to guard against a surprize from the enemy.

The park of artillery where all their guns are collected, made an extraordinary appearance. The gun carriages, in which they trust to the solidity of the timber, and use but little iron in their construction, are clumfy beyond belief; particularly the wheels, which are low, and formed of large solid pieces of wood united. The guns are of all sorts and dimensions; and having the names of their gods given to them, are painted in the most santastic manner; and many of them, held in efteem for the services they are said to have already performed for the state, cannot now be dispensed with, although in every respect unit for use. Were the guns even serviceable, the small supply of ammunition with which they are provided has always effectually prevented the Mahratta artillery from being formidable to their enemies.

The Mahratta infantry, which formed part of the retinue that attended the chiefs at the conference, is composed of black Christians, and despicable poor wretches of the lowest cast, uniform in nothing but the bad state of their musquets, none of which are either clean or complete; and sew are provided with either ammunition or accountments. They are commanded by balf-cast people of Portugueze and French extraction, who draw off the attention of spectators from the bad clothing of their men, by the profusion of antiquated sace bestowed on their own; and if there happen to be a few Europeans among the officers and men, which is sometimes the case, they execute the ser-

vice, and deplore their fate.

The Mahrattas do not appear to treat their infantry with more respect than they deserve, as they ride through them without any ceremony on the march, and on all occasions evidently consider them as foreigners, and a very inferior class of people and troops. Indeed the attention of the Mahrattas is directed entirely to their horses and bazars, those being the only objects which immediately affect their On a marching day, the guns and the infantry move of foon after day-light, but rarely together; the bazars and baggage move nearly about the fame time, as foon as they can be packed up and got ready. The guns and tumbrels, sufficiently unweildy without further burden, are to heaped with flores and baggage, that there does not feem to be any idea of its ever being necessary to prepare for action on the march. As there are no pioneers attached to the Mahratta artillery to repair the roads, this deficiency is compensated by an additional number of cattle, there being fometimes a hundred or \$ hundred and fifty bullocks, in a string of pairs, to one gun: the drivers, who are very expert, fit on the yokes, and pass over every The chiefs remain upon the impediment, commonly at a trot. ground, without tents, finoking their hookas, till the artiflery and baggage have got on some miles; they then follow, each pursuing his

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^{*} Half-cart, a mixed race, between Europeans and natives of the country.

own route, attended by his principal people; while the inferiors difperfe, to forage and plunder over the country.'

A review of the British troops, by the chiefs of the native forces, is still more characteristic of each:

The army of the Soubah or Nizam, having encamped with the Mahrattas, a few miles in the rear of the English army, Lord Cornwallis went to pay a visit to the Prince, and invited his Highness, and Hurry Punt, to see the British troops under arms on the following day.

On the 31st of January the line was ordered to be drawn out at noon for the reception of the Eastern chiefs, when Lord Cornwallis and General Medows went to meet them on the right of the encamp-

ment.

Great pains had been taken to explain to the Prince and Chiefs the necessity of their coming at the time appointed; and in order to make the compliment satisfactory to them, who were more desirous of being seen by our army in all their state, than of seeing the troops to advantage, it was agreed that they should come on their elephants.

The Chiefs, notwithstanding all that had been said to them on the subject of punctuality, did not approach the right of the line till

near three o'clock.

The camp was pitched in a valley close to Hooleadroog, and, from the nature of the ground, could not be in one straight line, but was formed on three sides of a square, with a considerable interval on account of broken ground between the divisions, which were thus en-

camped each with a different front.

In the referve, confishing of the cavalry, with a brigade of infantry in the centre, formed the division on the right of the line, and the two wings of the infantry formed the two divisions of the encampment; the battering train being in the centre of the left wing fronting Hooleadroog. The extent of the line, including the breaks between the divisions, was above four miles.

The Prince, the Minister, Hurry Punt, and the tributary Nabobs of Cuddapu and Canoul, who had accompanied Secunder Jau from Hyderabad, were on elephants richly caparisoned, attended by a numerous suit of their best horse, and preceded by their Chubdars +, who call out their titles; surrounded, in short, by an immense noisy

maltitude.

The Prince was in front, attended by Sir John Kennaway on a howdered [canopied] elephant, near enough to answer such questions as might be asked by his Highness respecting the troops. On his reaching the right of the line, a salute of 21 guns was fired from the park, while the cavalry, with drawn swords and trumpets sounding, received him with due honours as he passed their front. He returned the officers salute, and looked attentively at the troops. The 19th dragoons, of

. † Officers, attendant on a Prince, &c. distinguished by carrying a felver staff.

Hh 2 which

[•] This personage is a Bramin of the first order, and of great consequence in the Mahratta state.

which they had all heard, attracted their particular notice as they

paffed through the corps of the referve.

Having seen a regiment of Europeans, beside the dragoons in the first division, the chiefs were not a little surprized to find a brigade of three regiments on proceeding a little farther in the centre of the fecond division. They had passed the Sepoys at rather a quick pace, but went very flow opposite to the European corps, and seemed much struck with their appearance. The troops, all in new cloathing, their arms and accoutrements bright and glittering in the fun, and themfelves as well dreffed as they could have been for a review in time of peace; all order and filence, nothing heard or feen but the uniform found and motion in presenting their arms, accompanied by the drums and music of the corps, chequered and separated by the parties of artillery extended at the drag-ropes of their guns: the fight was beautiful even to those accustomed to military parade; while the contrast was no less striking between the good sense of our generals on horseback, and the absurd state of the chiefs looking down from their elephants, than between the silence and order of our troops, and the noise and irregularity of the mob that accompanied the Eastern Patentates.

After passing the right wing, the road leading through some wood and broken ground, the Chiefs, on ascending a height, were not a little aftonished to discover a still stronger line than the two they had passed, and which, in this situation, they could see at once through its whole extent. But for the battering train, which occupied a mile in the centre of this division, at which they looked with wonder; but for the difference of the dress and music of the Highland regiments in the 2d European brigade, and the striking difference of size and dress between the Bengal Sepoys on the right, and the Coast Sepoys which they now faw in the left wing; but for these distinctions which they remarked, such was the extent of ground which the army covered, and the apparent magnitude of its numbers, that the Chiefs might have imagined a part of the same troops were only shewn again upon other ground; an expedient not unufual among themselves whenever they have it in view to impress strangers with a false idea of the strength of their forces.

It was five o'clock before the Chiefs reached the left of the line, when having expressed themselves highly gratified with all they had feen, they accompanied Lord Cornwallis to his tents. After a short visit, and fixing the time and order of their march for the following

day, they returned, about sunset, to their own camps."

Oriental pride, we imagine, must have felt some degree of mortification when the Chiefs returned to their own troops, after witnessing the military order of the British camp. Superiority of discipline is indeed the only circumstance which has given us an influence among the Eastern powers; and the hols of this advantage is little to be apprehended, while a difcordance of interests keeps them disunited; and while an hereditary superstitious stamp of barbarous effeminacy excludes the improvements improvements of reason and knowlege. May our use of this influence justify the acquisition of it!—Major Dirom observes:

It was under the operation of a system so well calculated for the maintenance of distant provinces in times of danger, that the forces of our establishments in India were for the first time called forth and led on by the Governor General; ably seconded by the exertions of the Governors of the two other presidencies, and supported by distinguished zeal and merit in the officers and troops which composed those armies. Thus a hope was realized, which, though sometimes indulged, was considered rather as chimerical at the commencement of the war; namely, that the three Governors would meet with the forces of their respective presidencies at Seringapatam; and not only did this event take place, but the native powers on the peninsula were brought forward to witness and affish in the subjugation of the common enemy.

The result of the united operations, which reduced Tippoo to relinquish half his dominions to the powers allied against him, and which must circumscribe his suture ability to injure his neighbours, is universally known; the expected advantages are

thus briefly epitomized:

Finally, this war has vindicated the honour of the nation; has given the additional possessions and security to the settlements in India which they required; has effected the wished-for balance among the native powers on the peninsula; has beyond all former example raised the character of the British arms in India; and has afforded an instance of good faith in alliance, and moderation in conquest, so eminent, as ought to constitute the English the arbiters of powers, worthy of holding the sword and scales of justice in the East.'

All this may be very true according to present circumflances: but does not Major Dirom presume on a permanency of political interests in India, which is rarely to be sound even

in Europe?

The volume closes with a copy of the definitive treaty concluded with Tippoo in March 1792; and some other curious state papers.—On the whole, we cannot finish this article without thanking Major Dirom for the information and entertainment which his very respectable publication has afforded us.

With regard to the engravings, their accuracy must, by us, be taken for granted. They certainly are, exclusively of their

utility, a confiderable embellishment to the work.

ART. XVIII. Poems. By Lady Burrell. 8vo. 2 Vols. 12s. Boards. Leigh and Sotheby. 1793.

THE Muses of the present day seem too much inclined to offer sound for sense, to adopt the tinsel of poetry for the H h 3 gold,

gold, and to sacrifice to Obsarity as the great parent of Sublimity. So much, indeed, has this mode of composition prevailed, that, had we not been sully satisfied that authors were serious, we should have viewed their rhiming lucubrations as intended for burlesque. Disappointed have we too often been; and we have consequently exclaimed from our Aristarchal chair, "Tragicus boatus!—vex et preterea nihil." We do not mean to involve in this censure the poems of Lady Burrell, which are possessed of perspicuity, ease, and vivacity. We consess that we have perused some of them several times, and are pleased to recollect them; a circumstance which consers same, if the assertion of Monsieur Malherbe be true, que la pierre de touche des beaux vers etoit quand en les apprenent per cœur.

The first poem in this collection is 'Ellen Irvine,' taken from a story in Mr. Pennant's Tour through Scotland, wherein he says, "Her tomb and her lover's is now in Kirkconnel church-yard, with this simple inscription, Hic jacet Adam Flom-

ing, and a cross and sword engraved on it."

The poem is fomewhat in the Scottish dialect, and is versified with simplicity and elegance. We shall select a sew stanzas from the beginning:

The morrowe graie did o'er the hills appeare,
The lyttel byrds yfang fra everie fpraye:
It was the plefaunt feafoun of the yeere,
When Nature is most beutifull and gaie:
It was when Averill clad the trees wi grene.

It was when Averill clad the trees wi grene, And straw'd her primrofys o'er mead and dale, When eke the daisse 'mong the grasse was sene, And airly hersdmen wander thro' the vale:

It was when everie greve was spreynt wi dewe
That Edgar left hys bedd, and saught the wode;
Edgar! a lardinge, chief among the fewe

Edgar! a lordinge, chief among the fewe Of high estate, yet valourous and gode. Beside the Kirtle's flourie banks he rov'd.

Benethe the covert of the fragrant shade, for moche was Edgar's soul wi pleasure mov'd,

To see the workes of Nature's honde displaied;)

But grones deep fetch'd, and lab'ring fra the harte, Big wi' the founde of paine, assail'd his eare; The voice he followes, ready to imparte

The voice he followes, ready to imparte

His generous ayde, infensible to feere!

Juste in the centre of a lyttel woode,
Shrouded by Nature's charitable gloome,
Conceal'd from publick observatione, stoode,
Of marbic, (unadourn'd by wordes,) a toombe.

Awur



Lady Burrell's Poems.

Atour its base the deadlie nightshade sprang,
And there the melancholy cypress grewe,
Upon whose boughes the robin redbresse sang,
And o'er whose heade the bodinge raven slewe.

Athwart the toombe, immerfed in anguish, hung
He, fra whose busom burste sie heavie sigghes;
He seem'd a comelie swayne, baith faire and young,
And tagged descended for her down out over the

And teeres descended fra hys downcast eyes.

Sable hys vesture, and hys slewinge haire

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Fell o'er hys shoulders, wi dishevell'd grace; Majestic pryde was in hys manlie aire,

But pale despayre was peinted on his face.—

(Sik have I seene, methinks, a blyghted tree Some feint appearance of itself retain; The stem preservinge all its dignitie,

The wither'd branches droopinge tow'rds the plaine.)'

The address to Kenwood, the seat of the late Earl of Mansfield, is a pretty poetical tribute to friendship:

> Ye happy scenes! by taste improv'd, By all the friends of virtue lov'd, Who reverence Manssield's name: Whilst wisdom, learning, worth, receives That praise the mind discerning gives, Thy groves will merit fame.

> For oft by yon pellucid stream,
> The great inspirer of my theme
> Has been observ'd to stray.
> There pour'd instruction on the ear,
> Or mourn'd with those who pensive were,
> Or laugh'd among the gay.

His brow was never feen to frown, Save when fuch glaring deeds were known, As wore a fraudful dye.

Then did the wretch, appal'd with fear, Behold him as a Judge severe, And dread his piercing eye.

He temper'd dignity with eafe, Knew how to awe, and how to please, How blend respect with love;

He cheer'd the timid with a smile, The fad could of their cares beguile, The guilty wou'd reprove.

Again he feeks yon tranquil shades—
Ah hasten, ye Aönian maids!
And tune the lyric string,
With sounds harmonious sooth his ear;—
Ye slowers! with gayer tints appear,
Ye birds more sweetly sing!

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Yet vain is all the bloom of spring.

In vain the choral warblers sing.

To those with pain oppress.

Hear then, oh! hear the muse's prayer!

Hyggia! haste to meet him there,

And long remain his guest.

The epiftle from Elvira to her lover is tender and interesting. The lady seems to have looked at Ovid, as well as at Pope and the plaintive Hammond; the latter of whom, in spite of the illiberal censure of the late Dr. Johnson, will be quoted as a model of poetic ease and simplicity.—Be it however remembered, that we do not allude to all the stanzas of Hammond; who, in his imitations of Tibullus, by an injudicious introduction of a measure of Roman and British customs, has destroyed the intended effect.

The Field Mouse, in the second volume, may be given as

· A Mouse, the sleekest of the train

another pleasing specimen:

That ever stole the farmer's grain, Grew tir'd of acorns, wheat, and peafe, And long'd to feed on favoury cheefe. A travell'd fir, a moule of spirit, Endow'd with wit, but little merit, In evil hour a vifit paid, And turn'd his inexperienc'd head With stories of I know not what! The comforts of the shepherd's cot, The plenty of the farmer's barn. And granaries replete with corn; But most the luxury and waste Of houses own'd by men of take, Where a man-cook confumes the meat, Yet leaves enough for MICE to eat, And in whose pantry, cheese and ham Invite a colony to cram. The longing moule the story hears, He feels alternate hopes and fears, His friend's advice he dares pursue, And bids his rural friends adieu. When night her fable curtain spread, And all was alent as the dead, Our hero crept along the way His friend had pointed out by day, And entering at the cellar door, Accorded to the pastry floor. Behited a table there he lies, And thinks himself secure and wife : At more a plenicous liene appears, Emily was the time and year;

Banister's Translation of Pindar's Odes.

(The reliques of a sumptuous dinner Are tempting to a young beginner;) He peeps, and thinks he may come out To taffe a bit, and look about; No foe appears, and bolder grown, He swears the treasure is his own; Then fallying forth in open day, Eats all that comes into his way. But foon the greafy cook is feen-The mouse looks pitiful and mean; Scouts from the dreffer in a fright, Yet does not 'scape his watchful fight. The gnaw'd remains of viands rare Are taken from the shelf with care, And in their place a TRAP is set, To make the thief repay the debt. The moule at evening dares to peep, And thinks his foe is fast ascep, The favoury cheefe his fancy draws Within the TRAP's unfeeling jaws, He finds too late his error there, And dies upon the fatal mare: (A martyr unto bad advice; A lesson to imprudent mice,

Who, discontented with their home,

. . .

To gayer scenes desire to roam.) Such are the specimens of Lady Burrell's poetical talents; hich, we will venture to say, do honour to her pen. Some the lines, it must be consessed, are too prosaic to be called etical: but, as they are possibly attempts at simplicity, (for ady B. has, in a number of places, discovered powers of ergy,) what critic can be so sastedous, and so destitute of step, as not to forgive the sailure? Ubi plura nitent, non ego ucis offendar maculis, is a maxim with Horace, and must ever with the Monthly Reviewers. Lady Burrell has also atnoted the ludicrous and the satirical, not without success; d, in several sketches from Nature, she has shewn herself a etical Teniers.

LT. XIX. A Translation of all the Pythian, Namean, and Ishmian Odes of Pindar, except the Fourth and Firth Pythian Odes, and those which have been translated by the late Gilbert West, Esq. By the Rev. James Banister. 8vo. pp. 244. 5s. Boards. Wilkie, &c.

THE merits and demerits of the old Theban Bard have formed a frequent subject of literary contention. Ælian, the much solumnity, informs us that Pindar, when a child, ing turned out of doors and lest to starve by his unnatural rents, a swarm of bees, conscious of his suture sweetness,

and actuated by a congeniality of disposition, supported the in-

fant poet with their honey.

Philostratus, who pretended to know more of this important matter than Ælian, insists that the child was in his cradle when the bees alighted on his lips, exhibiting an undoubted presage of suture celebrity in song; a presage, however, not confined to l'indar alone, as it has been as strongly authenticated that Plato and others were paid the very identical compliment.

Some moderns, attempting and wishing to tarnish his poetical crown, suspect the sact; concluding it to be all a sable, invented by some idle enthusiast, who was incapable of distinguishing between sense and sound, noise and sublimity, the bold thunder and the rumbling wheel-barrow. So momentous a question is not at present to be decided even by as grey-beards; incompetent, therefore, tantas componera lites, we waive the discussion, and proceed to Mr. Banister's translation; a work which we think he has executed with sidelity and elegance. We shall produce an example, by an extract from the second Pythian Ode:— STROPHE I.

 Cities of Syracuse, the lov'd abode Of thund'ring Mars, the warrior's god! The fruitful nurse of generous steeds, And youths, whom love of glory warms, Whole fouls delight in feats of arms, And high heroic deeds! From Thebes proud walls, to you I bring The sweetly-sounding lyric string; The glorious subject of my song, The rapid chariot, borne along By courfer's swift, beneath whose bound, Groaning heaves the trembling ground, And Hiero, skilful to obtain The victor's prize on Pythia's plain. Ortygia glories in the crown, Which on her isle resulgent beams The splendor of deserv'd renown, For chaste Diana in thy streams Delights to bathe, and there her temple stands: Without her aid, in vain with skilful hands Would men attempt th' unmanag'd steeds to train, And guide them grac'd with trappings o'er the plain.' In this strophe, Mr. B. has an uncouth line, by means of

an expletive monofyllable, which might be altered for the better:

Delights to bathe, and there her temple Rands.'---

^{*} ANTISTROPHE I.
* For thou, bright goddes, skill'd to trace
The windings of the woodland chace,
And Hermes who o'er games presides,
Around the victor Hiere's head,

Banister's Translation of Pindar's Oder.

Refulgent beams of glory shed, When to the charjot's polish'd fides, Obedient to the reins, he join'd the force Of the fleet and generous horfe, Invoking oft with ardent prayers, The god, whose arm the trident bears: The awful majesty of kings to raise, And give to virtue deathless praise; Bards of every age and clime, For this have fram'd the verse sublime: In firains fonorous, poets vie Thy fame, O Cynyras, to fing; The woods, and echoing vales reply, Proud to applaud the Cyprian King, His subjects glory, and by all approved, And by Apollo dearly lov'd; Apollo, graceful with his golden hair, The favourite too of Venus, heavenly fair.

* RPODE I.

Impell'd to this by heav'n-born gratitude, With eyes of kindness to behold the good; Sweetly Hiero in thy cars, Sounds the Locrian virgins' voice, When to Heaven they pour their prayers, And in thy glorious acts rejoice; Preserv'd by thee from dire alarms, From the fierce victor's power, and dreadful din of arms. Tis said, that in the dark abodes, Lxion, whilst with horrid sound, Turns the giddy wheel around, Commanded by the avenging gods Exclaims-Let gratitude inspire Each worthy break; with liberal hand reward Favours receiv'd; and friendship's holy site, Pure from the taint of vice and interest guard.

STROPHE II.

These awful truths Ixion now relates,
Chain'd down for ever by his adverse fates;
For once in Heaven's serene abodes,
A calm and happy life he pass'd,
Receiv'd by Jove among the gods;
But ah! these blessings could not last,
For by his frantic passions sir'd,
To Juno's bed the daring chief aspir'd,
And vainly hop'd the joys to prove,
The joys divine reserv'd for Jove:
Such crimes by Heaven unpunish'd did not go,
Destin'd to pass his days in endless woe,
The wretch now groans in agonizing pain,
Laments, and sheds repentant tears in vain.

Banister's Translation of Pindar's Odes.

By two black crimes to dire perdition driv'n, Offended Justice arms the hand of Heav'n. For first his hands with kindred blood he stain'd, And thus by fraud his father's wealth detain'd.

ANTISTROPHE IL. · And next by wild defires misled, . He strove to violate the awful bed Of Juno, Jove's imperial bride... Of Juno, Jove's imperial bride...
Loft to the fense of all that's good and great, He faw not, blinded by his impious pride, The torments which such horrid crimes await: Ah what calamities do mortals prove From the fad impulse of unlawful love! For with a painted cloud he fill'd his arma, And vainly thought he clasp'd immortal charms: For love had deck'd the cloud with every grace, Resembling June, in her air, her face, And well-proportion'd limbs; obedient to command Rose the light form, beneath the skilful hand. Deceiv'd by Beauty's lure, Ixion run To clasp those charms, by which he was undone. Now to the wheel his hands and feet are bound, And in perpetual circles whirl'd around.

* Art would exert its utmost powers in vain, His limbs to loosen from the galling chain; My Mula delights heroic worth to praise, And scorns to tread in Satire's thorny ways. See in Archilochus, unhappy bard, Of envious humour, the deserv'd reward, Poor, and distress'd, an anxious care he seeds, And pines at noble and successful deeds; Great is the power of riches, when combin'd With wisdom, virtue, and a generous mind.'

In this extract, a peccadillo against grammar occurs:

' Deceiv'd by Beauty's lure, Ixion run.'

Run is not the præterite of the verb to run; such violations

ught not to be indulged for the fake of a rhime.

Other instances might be selected, in which Mr. B. has sarificed grammar to rhime or metre: but we will only add the allowing:

To him of Peleus, frequent the complain'd, And faid, the youth, by impious passion led, Had strove by force to violate her bed.' (P. 122.)

We shall now exhibit Mr. Banister's powers of translation, an extract from the fifth Nemean Ode.

STROPHE I.

" Unskill'd the power of beauty to impart To polish stone, or ductile brase, And with a sculptor's imitative art To animate the glowing mass; For statues labour'd by the ablest hand, Fix'd to their base, and without motion stand: Not so th' inspiring songs of bards renown'd, Whose rapid flight, not earth itself can bound; Then go my Muse, and o'er the pathless main In some light bark, the joyful tidings bear, And to Ægina's happy ille repair, And tell that Pytheas on the Nemean plain, Obtain'd by virtuous toils the wreftler's crown. Tho' yet a youth! and scarce the tender down Blooms on his cheeks; as first on vines appear The budding promise of a fruitful year.

ANTISTROPHE L

By noble acts he emulates a race
Of brave progenitors rever'd of old,
Who from Saturnian Jove their lineage trace,
And Nereus' daughters bright with waving gold,
And brings new honours to his native town,
Which glories in the virtues of her fon;
A town which hospitable virtues bles,
Fond to relieve the stranger in distres,
For arms, for arts, and naval strength renown'd;
Peleus and Telamon the city plan'd,
And Phocus join'd, in labour and command,
And with a wall the work stupendous crown'd.

Banifler's Translation of Pindar's Odies.

With hands uplifted to the realms above, They first implored the majesty of Jove, To bless their toils, and fertilize the plains With kindly seasons, and refreshing rains.

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EPODE I.

The azure goddess Plamathia bore
The royal Phocus, on the rocky shore;
Horror and grief at once unchain my tongue,
While the due courle of my historic song
Leads me to tell the cause unfortunate,
Which from their native isle the brother herees drove.
What ills, alas, unhappy mortals prove,
From the sad demon of revenge and hate!—
Silent I stand, unwilling to disclose
Facts, which must wound the warm and seeling breast;
A narrative of anguish, toil, and woes,
Is by the modest poet best suppress;
The wise, by silence cautiously conceal
Truths, which the weak imprudently reveal.

· STROPHE II.

· But their auspicious sortunes to relate, Their strength of arm, their courage undismay'd, In all the iron toils of war display'd; My Muse delighted with a theme so great, Her utmost powers employs to deck the fong; And as the active racer with a bound, Leaps o'er each fence which parts th' adjacent ground, Thus by my daring genius borne along, Undaunted I pursue my rapid flight! Swift as the eagle, failing from the height Of Heaven, his pinions stretches bold and free. And measures a vast tract of earth and sea; On Pelion's hill, amid the woody shades, The choir of Muses, heaven-descended maids, This race enobled with their tuneful tongue, And whilst their high heroic deeds they lung, Plac'd in the midit, Apollo struck the lyre; And as across his careless hand he flings, In quick vibrations move the obedient strings, And speak the master's skill, and poet's fire.'

Euphoniæ gratiâ, we wish an alteration in the following line:

• Is by the modest poet best supprest.'

From the above specimens, the reader will, probably, not entertain a mean idea of Mr. Banister's version. Ease and perspicuity pervade it; and if the translator manifests any deficiency, it is on the side of simplicity. A feeble prosaic line now and then limps into a stanza; which, for the ODE, requires vigour and inversion.

Mr. B expresses, in his presace, a timidity at appearing before the awful tribunal of the public, after Gilbert West: let him be comforted; for if we are in possession of any powers of decision on the subject, Mr. B. will suffer little diminution of fame by a comparison.

Before we conclude this article, we would advise Mr. B. to be more moderate in his praise of a favourite author. In his note on the second Pythian Ode, is the following expression: Mr. Warburton, who had the happy art of illumining, by the irresistible powers of his genius, every subject on which he wrote.'

This is far from a faithful portrait of Dr. Warburton. Amibus Plato, amicus Socrates, sed magis amica VERITAS. That he was a man of classical erudition, will not be denied; that he possessed from critical acumen, must be also confessed: but that he sometimes darkened instead of illumining the text of an author, will be as easily granted by the discerning and the im-

partial.

The famous Canons of Criticism, by Edwards of Lincoln's Inn, (written in a justifiable spirit of revenge for the aggressor's infolence,) prove what little dependance is to be placed on the Bishop's skill in the art of illustration. It will be no deviation from truth to affert, that his tafte was generally cold, phlegmatic, and fometimes vulgar; and that he was by no means qualified for being the Petronius of literature. That he was far from the first, or even a first-rate scholar of the day, his dreaded antagonist, the late learned and worthy prelate, Lowth, shreatened to prove: but, from a motive of candour, though amply justified by his opponent's provoking conduct, he defisted. In all the pride of authority, Dr. Warburton deemed himself nulli secundus; a few, however, knew him to be pluribus im-Could haughtiness, intolerance, and self-sufficiency have conferred a claim to univerful homage, he would have been the deity of his time. The constitution of letters had been voted a republic until the appearance of this Hyder Ally in literature; who seemed immediately resolved, in virtue of his own arbitrary claim, to erect his throne; and, with all the overwhelming spirit of an Eastern despot, he wished to bestride the world of opinion. His triumph continued for a time; his flaves admired, feared, and crouched; until one or two daring little Davids courageously encountered, and brought to the ground, the Giant of Gath! The mighty found of DIVINE LEGATION is lowered by the interpolition of a few years to the mere echo of an echo. - The noise which he made, when in the zenith of his powers, astonished and deceived the multitude; which mistook a sudden gust of wind for the majesty of A STORM.

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MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For AUGUST, 1793.

LAW.

Art. 20. The Justice of the Peace and Parish Officer, by Richard Burn, LL. D. late Chancellor of the Diocese of Carlisle, continued to the present Time by John Burn, Esq. his Son, one of his Majesty's Justices of the Peace for the Counties of Westmoreland and Cumberland. The Seventeenth Edition, including the Statutes of the last Session of Parliament, (32 Geo. III.). To which is added an Appendix, containing the Act respecting Aliens, and such others as have passed in the present Session. 8vo. 4 Vols. 11. 8s. Boards. Cadell. 1793.

THE merit of this publication is fo well known to the profession, and has been so long and so universally acknowleded by those for whose use and benefit it was compiled, that it is become unnecessary now to infift on it.-Mr. Burn, in the additions made to the present work, treads in the steps of his celebrated predecessor; and, as he observes in his preface to the fixteenth edition, " the many and very early opportunities given him by his father to observe the method he pursued in making the necessary alterations and additions to every new edition, and selecting from the reports such adjudged cases as seemed best to explain the laws on which the determinations of the courts were founded, and his more particular instructions to him to make extracts from the new acts of parliament, and in forming other necessary collections for the work," have in an essential degree qualfied him for this undertaking. - In addition to the improvements enumerated in the title-page, the editor has inferted; under their proper titles, all the cases which have been determined in the courts, applicable to the subject of the work, and which have been given in the Term Reports, from the year 1788, in which the fixteenth edition appeared, to Trinity Term, 32 Geo. III. inclusively .- No pains, indeed, scem to have been spared to render the present edition as valuable as the nature of the defign would admit.

Art. 21. A General Abridgment of Law and Equity, alphabetically digested under proper Titles; with Notes and References to the whole. By Charles Viner, Esq. Founder of the Vinerian Lecture, Oxford. The Second Edition. 8vo. 24 Vols. Robinsons.

The difficulty of procuring this immense body of law, and the certain expense attending the purchase of it, have induced the proprietors to reprint it in its present more commodious and less expensive form. Two volumes, at half a guinea each, to subscribers, are delivered out at the beginning of every term, and will continue so to be till the whole is completed. The only alteration made in the present edition consists in an enlargement of the Tables of Contents and of the Indices, which, in a work of this nature, require particular attention.

Eighteen volumes of this edition have already appeared.

Monthby Catalogue, Law.

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Art. 22. A general Abridgment of Cases in Equity, argued and adjudged - in the High Court of Chancery, &c. with several Cases never before published, alphabetically digested under proper Titles; with Notes and References to the whole; and three Tables, the first of the Names of the Cases; the second of the several Titles, with their Divisions and Subdivisions; and the third of the Matter under "general Heads. By a Gentleman of the Middle Temple. Vol. 1. The fifth Edition, with Corrections and Additions. Fol. pp.417.

1. 11.55. bound. Butterworth. 1793.

.. The first edition of this valuable work was published in the year 1732, and Mr. Pooley, a Barrister of great eminence in his time, was its reputed author.—The profession have uniformly considered it as a publication of great merit and utility, so that various editions have been found necessary at different periods. -To the present, which is the fifth, the editor has added an abridgment of nearly two hundred new cases; he has also illustrated the former cases with pertinent references; and he has enlarged and improved the index of principal matters.

Art. 23. A History of the Law of Shipping and Navigation. By John Reeves, Efq. Author of " The Hittory of the English Law." 8vo. 8s. Boards. Brooke.

pp. 547. 8s. Boards. Brooke. 1792.

The intention of the author in the present publication will be best

collected from his own words on the subject:

The increase of shipping, and the improvement of navigation, are objects that have frequently engaged the attention of the Legislature; and various provisions have been made from time to time, by which it was endeavoured to confine, as much as possible, the trade to and from this country, the employment of the fisheries, and the conveyance coastwife, to the shipping and mariners of this country alone. The History, therefore, of Shipping and Navigation includes in it the history of the different branches of foreign and domestic trade, and of the fisheries carried on either upon our coasts or abroad; and we shall accordingly, in pursuing this inquiry, be led to consider the laws that have been made for better regulating those various objects of commercial policy

But this, understood in its largest extent, opens to us a field of more space and greater variety than is necessary for our present purpose; some limit must therefore be set to our research : in so doing, it is meant to confine ourselves merely to such matters as belong to thipping and navigation in the stricter sense of those words, or at least in the parliamentary sense which they have acquired from the use and application of them in different acts of parliament. Thus, whatever relates to a flip, and its qualifications of ownership, or built, the master who commands, and the scamen who navigate it, the goods and commodities, and the places from which it may import by virtue of such qualifications; all these are peculiarly subjects of the present history, and will of themselves bring before us the trade and commerce of the whole world. But any incidents and circumstances relating to that trade and commerce, and not originating from, or belonging to, the precise nature of such qualifications of the ship and its navigation, are extraneous and foreign. Thus the whole concern of sustoms and duties 448

Yet vain is all the bloom of spring.

In vain the choral warblers sing.

To those with pain oppress.

Hear then, oh! hear the muse's prayer!

Hygeia! haste to meet him there.

And long remain his guest.'

The epiftle from Elvira to her lover is tender and interesting. The lady seems to have looked at Ovid, as well as at Pope and the plaintive Hammond; the latter of whom, in spite of the illiberal censure of the late Dr. Johnson, will be quoted as a model of poetic ease and simplicity.—Be it however remembered, that we do not allude to all the stanzas of Hammond; who, in his imitations of Tibullus, by an injudicious introduction of a measure of Roman and British customs, has destroyed the intended effect.

The Field Mouse, in the second volume, may be given as

another pleasing specimen:

· A Mouse, the sleekest of the train That ever stole the farmer's grain, Grew tir'd of acorns, wheat, and peafe, And long'd to feed on favoury cheefe. A travell'd fir, a mouse of spirit, Endow'd with wit, but little merit, In evil hour a vifit paid, And turn'd his inexperienc'd head With stories of I know not what! The comforts of the shepherd's cot, The plenty of the farmer's barn, And granaries replete with corn; But most the luxury and waste Of houses own'd by men of take, Where a man-cook confumes the meat, Yet leaves enough for MICE to eat, And in whose pantry, cheese and ham Invite a colony to cram. The longing mouse the story hears, He feels alternate hopes and fears, His friend's advice he dares pursue, And bids his rural friends adieu. When night her sable curtain spread, And all was filent as the dead, Our hero crept along the way His friend had pointed out by day, And entering at the cellar door, Ascended to the pantry floor. Behind a table there he lies, And thinks himself secure and wife : At morn a plenteous scene appears, Enough to serve him many years;

Monthly Catalogue, Law.

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Art. 22. A general Abridgment of Cases in Equity, argued and adjudged in the High Court of Chancery, &c. with several Cases never before published, alphabetically digested under proper Titles; with Notes and References to the whole; and three Tables, the first of the Names of the Cases; the second of the several Titles, with their Divisions and Subdivisions; and the third of the Matter under "general Heads. By a Gentleman of the Middle Temple. Vol. I. The fifth Edition, with Corrections and Additions. Fol. pp.417.

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The work is divided into three parts; the first contains the earliest laws enacted on the subject, down to and including the Act of Navigation passed in 1651. The second begins with the samous Act of Navigation passed in the 12th year of the reign of King Charles the Second, and contains an account of all the laws from that period to the making of the peace in 1783. The third commences after the peace, and states and examines the laws made down to the year 1792.—The different cases determined in the courts of law, on the subject of shipping and navigation, are correctly given, and ably illustrated and discussed; and as those cases are few in number, not exceeding ten, the opinions of various law-officers at different periods are here presented to the reader, and form a valuable addition to the work.—So much information is contained in this volume, and so much ability and diligence are shewn by the writer in the course of it, that we can with perfect considence recommend it to public notice.

Art. 24. History of the Government of the Island of Newfoundland. With an Appendix containing the Acts of Parliament made respecting the Trade and Fishery. By John Reeves, Esq. Chief Justice of the Island. 8vo. pp. 283. 6s. Boards. Sewell. 1793.

We are here presented with a short and comprehensive history of Newfoundland, from the time of granting the first charter to Sir Humphry Gilbert in the year 1578, to the appointment of a court of judicature in the year 1791.—The volume contains an account of the injuries committed at different times by the merchants and adventurers on the natives and inhabitants of the place, and of the various, and, in most cases, inesfectual expedients adopted by the latter to remedy and prevent them.—Admiral Milbanke established a court of common pleas in the year 1789: but as it was doubted, by the law-officers in this country, whether he was invested with sufficient authority as Governor for that purpose; and as the measure was attended with confiderable advantage in redressing the injured, and in punishing the oppressors; ' the subject was taken up by the Committee of Trade in the year 1791; and a bill was presented to parliament, under their direction, for inflituting a court of the fort they had recommended in the representation made in 1790. This bill passed into a law; and being intended as an experiment of a new judicature, it was to endure for one year only. The result of that experiment was to propose another bill in the sessions of 1792, for instituting a court somewhat different from that of the preceding bill. This also was only for a year. It is now for the confideration of parliament finally to determine what courts are to be chablished in the island for the adminitiration of juilice in future."

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Monthly Catalogue, Medical, Chemical, &c. 459

The profits of this work are appropriated to the relief of the suffering clergy of France, refugees in the British dominions:' but the merit of this volume rests not on its charitable intention alone, as the author has throughout collected and arranged much entertaining and useful knowlege on the subject of the history of Newfoundland.

MEDICAL, CHEMICAL, &c.

Art. 25. An Essay on Generation. By J. F. Blumenbach, M. D. Aulic Counsellor to his Britannic Majesty, and Professor of Physic in the University of Gottingen, &c. Translated from the German. 12mo. pp. 84. 2s. sewed. Cadell. 1792.

He who wishes to enter into speculations on this curious subject, will find amusement in Professor Blumenbach's essay: he will find too a successful resutation of the savourite doctrine of the evolution of pre-existing organic germs. If he should expect to make farther progress, and to obtain a perfect theory of the matter, he will be disappointed: he will find the ' formative nifus' of the Professor, like the attempts of his predecessors, very unsatisfactory. In alleviation of this disappointment, we can only observe, that the knowlege of the modus operandi is perhaps of no great importance; and so, adopting the advice of Julian, we can only say in his words,

Είθεν θαρσος έχωι, ζωε, φιλευε γείος.

Art. 26. New Experiments with Mercury in the Small-pox, by which is demonstrated its specific Virtue in that Disease. By P. Van Woensel, M.D. translated from the French by W. Fowle, M.D.

1s. Crowder. 1793.

The author of this little pamphlet informs us, that the advantage of Mr. Sutton's method of preparing his patients for inoculation appeared to him to be entirely owing to the small doses of mercury which Such an hypothesis will, we apprehend, be considerhe exhibited. ed in this country as a guide by no means likely to lead to any difcovery of importance. It induced Dr. Van Woensel, however, to give two thirds of two grains of mercury in a day, and sometimes two entire grains, to each patient whom he was about to inoculate; this course was begun ten days before the operation, and was continued to the commencement of the eruptive symptoms. The effect askonished Dr. Van Woensel, and all who saw his patients; ' at a time when the worft species of small-pox raged at Petersburgh, and when the heat was excessive....not one of fixty-five patients had any fickness, confinement to his bed, or indisposition, in any stage of the disease.'-So much we learn from the first part. We should have been glad if the author had given us some farther information concerning his pa-Rients,—for instance, what was the number of pustules, the numerical Tate of the pulse, &c. This would have pleased us more than his digreffive declamation against complicated prescriptions

In the second part, Dr. Van W. describes the experiments, which e undertook with a view to ascertain the direct action of more unvon

[•] The translator's preface is subscribed, A. Crienton, opting Gardens.

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variolous matter. In three children, inoculated in both arms with this matter, intimately mixed with a *small portion* of calomel, no infection took place. The event was the same when two children were inoculated with recent pus, exposed for two minutes to the steam of

mercury.

These two children asterward received the disease from unmixed pus.—When one arm was inoculated with pus, mixed with calomel, and the other with unmixed pus, the incision in the latter dried up without instammation: that in the former communicated the disease in the usual manner. Mercurial plaisters applied to the incision, even when evidently instamed, and surrounded with small pustules, caused the instammation to subside, and prevented insection; except in cases where the incision in the other arm was left to its natural progress. The insection was not communicated by lint sleeped in variolous matter, which had been exposed to a cold of 20° of Reaumur's scale, i.e. about 13° below 0 of Fahrenheit's scale. This experiment was only once made.

The author concludes by pointing out the use of these sacts. He thinks it almost impossible that any one should die in consequence of inoculation, if the plan which he recommends be pursued. He advises mercurial applications to the eyes, in order to prevent the injury

which they fometimes sustain from the small-pox.

We may add, that the translation appears to have been accurately made. It is, as the translator also observes, a remarkable, and indeed a suspicious circumstance, that Dr. Van W. should speak of a strong folution of calomel. To solve the difficulty, he supposes Dr. Van W.'s calomel to have approached near to corrosive sublimate. We are almost disposed to believe, since he prescribes calomel of the seventh sublimation, that he has inaccurately consounded diffusion with folution—provided we may assume, that his experiments were actually attended with the results which he describes. Should they receive the confirmation which they require before they can obtain entire credit, they will prove that in creating has more power over the variolous than it probably has over the siphylitic virus; and they will doubtless, in their application to the practice of medicine, be beneficial to mankind.

Art. 27. A Treatife on the Mineral Waters of Harrogate. Containing the History of these Waters, their Chemical Analysis, Medicinal Properties, and plain Directions for their Use. By Thomas Garnett, M.D. Physician at Harrogate, &c. 8vo. pp. 168. 2s. 6d.

Johnson. 1792.

After having given a pleasing history of the Harrogate waters, Dr. Garnett proceeds to their analysis; and here he confines his attention to the principal sulphur spring, called The Drinking Well; and to two chalybeate springs—the Old Spaw, and the Tewit wells: of the Crescent water, in which both these ingredients are contained, he has given a separate account in a former pamphlet. The analysis of these waters, according to the nomenclature of the French chemiss, is as sollows:

A wine

MONTHLY CATALOGUE, East India Affairs.

A wine gallon of the fulphur water from the Drinking Well contains, oz. dwt. gr.

	٠	~	. 6
Of muriat of soda, or common salt, -	1	5	15.5
Muriat of lime,	0	ō	13
Muriat of magnesia,	0	3	19
Carbonat of lime,	0	ō	18,5
Carbonat of magnesia,	0	0	5.5
Sulphat of magnefia, or Epsom falt,	0	0	10,5
	1	11	10
Of aeriform fluids,			
• •		cubic	inches,
Carbonic acid gas, or fixed air,	-		8
Azotic gas,	-		7
Sulphurated hydrogen gas, or hepatic ai	r,		19
			_
			34

A wine gallon of the Old Spaw water contains,

	grains.	Of aërial fluids,			
Of carbonat of iron, Sulphat of foda,	- 2 - 3	Carbonic acid gas, cubic inches.			
Sulphat of lime,	- 1,5	Azotic gas, - 4,25			
	. 6,5	20			

A wine gallon of the Tewit Well water contains,

Of carbonat of iron,		grains. 2 ½	Of aërial fluids,			
	-			cubic inches.		
Sulphat of time,	-	4	Carbonic acid gas,		-	16
		-	Azotic gas,	•	-	5
		6 <u>L</u>				-

The medicinal properties of these waters are afterward judiciously explained, and the necessary directions and cautions are given for their use.

EAST INDIA AFFAIRS.

Art. 28. Letter from Mr. Francis to Lord North, late Earl of Guildford.
With an Appendix. 8vo. pp. 107. 2s. Debrett. 1793.

Art. 29. Heads of Mr. Francis's Speech in reply to Mr. Dundas, on the 23d of April 1793, in a Committee of the whole House, to confider of the Government and Trade of India. Mr. Beausoy in the Chair. 8vo. pp. 19. 6d. Debrett.

The close connection between these two publications induces us to class them together. Mr. Francis's letter to Lord North is dated from Calcutta, Sept. 17, 1777; and is now published to shew the correspondence between the reasoning in his late speech and in that of his former letter. His idea of our Eastern administration, at the time of his writing this letter, is implied in the following passage: 'The same principle of government, if it deserves that name, which unites the sovereign and the merchant in the supposed person of the company, naturally extends through every branch of their commercial administration.

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stration, and communicates some portion of their own arbitrary power to the lowest agent or factor in their service. The abuses that sollow are minute in their operation, and spare nothing. They reach to perfons and property, to which no other system of power could descend, but which cannot escape the penetrating eyes of men acquainted with all the little channels, through which the lowest order of manusacturers derive their subsistence.'

In this letter, Mr. F. proposed to his noble correspondent a variety of objects of inquiry into the management of our Eastern territories, and into the tendency of measures pursued; which, we may suppose, by the distance of time since they were pointed out, and the station of the party to whom they were addressed, have had their weight in subsequent regulations. In proposing these objects of discussion, and in his reasoning on the then state of affairs in Bengal, the letter-writer deplores on one side, as Mr. Hastings has repeatedly done on the other, the divisions in the council, and the sluctuation of measures. It is much to be lamented that, when both agreed in the fact, and in its injurious tendency, their endeavours did not unite to remove an evil so completely within their power: but we are sorry to add that no such conciliating spirit is discoverable in the recent speech.

Mr. F. in his reply to Mr. Dundas, introduces his observations with a general preliminary declaration, which possess the merit of having nothing obscure or equivocal in it.— Namely, that the measure he proposes, the principles he maintains, the facts he asserts, and the arguments situ which he supports his propositions, appear to me to stand in direct opposition to truth, to reason, to policy, to experience, and to justice, and to be as dangerous in their application and effect as they are falle and absurd in their conception. I do not apply this language personally to the right honourable gentleman, but to the montrous scheme he recommends, and the assonishing reasons he assigns for it. As to himself, I am, and have been at all times, ready to do him justice, and to allow him the degree of merit that belongs to him. I wish he would furnish me with more frequent opportunities of commending his conduct.

This speech, in common with others, has been loosely abstracted in the newspapers; those who wish to read it more at large, and on better authority, will here find the proposed plan for renewing the East India charter controverted with much address, and possibly here and there with some truth: but it behoves us to accept party representations with a degree of caution and diffidence, proportioned to the boldness of affertion, and the asperity of language.

As we have produced part of the exordium of this speech, we shall also give the conclusion of it, which is equally curious, to shew how much senatorial elecution is enriched by the rhetoric of a well-known academy situated more to the eastward; truth or falsehood out of the question; farther than an old observation will warrant, which infers weakness of argument from angry language:

I have given you my opinion of as many of the particulars of the honourable gentleman's propositions, as I have been able to recollect. If the plan of continuing the government of so great a territory in the hands of a trading company were real and effective, if it seriously

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meant what it professed, I should think it liable to the most serious and folid objections. But, when I know that directly the reverse is the fact, when I fee the name of the Company held up as a mask and a stalking horse to shelter the operation of a real power which skulks behind it, that this power engrosses every thing, while it pretends to take nothing, I should be afraid of using unparisamentary language, if I permitted myself to say what I think of the whole measure. mean therefore to express myself with caution, with reserve and moderation, when I say, that it is a dangerous composition of bad principles with worse practice, of absurd theories carried into execution in the most suspicious form of fallacy and delusion from beginning to end. As an operation pretending to genius or contrivance, what is it but a poor, flat, pitiful conclusion from premises that announced and demanded some grand measure, some capital arrangement, the result of deep inquiry and penetration, conducted with industry, and enlightened by experience, and fit to be proposed by a statesman, to the legislature of a great kingdom, for the better government of another? I cannot believe it possible that this can be the plan which the right honourable gentleman has hitherto had in view. If it be, I am fure that all his oftenfible labours and inquiries about Indian affairs have been completely thrown away.'

From the opening and the close, our readers may guess the com-

plection of all that occurs between, to form the connexion.

MARITIME AFFAIRS.

Art. 30. Some Account of the Institution, Plan, and Present State of the Society for the Improvement of Naval Architecture: with the Premiums offered, List of Members, and the Rules and Orders of the Society. To which are annexed some Papers on the Subjects of Naval Architecture, received by the Committee. 8vo. pp. 81.

rs. Sewell. 1792.

As naval architecture is a national concern to a maritime people, it might be expected to be cultivated in a royal academy, after the example of the late government of France: but because we have had no professed college for the cultivation of the principles of ship building, it will not follow that we are ignorant of the art: for however we , attained the knowlege, it is certain that we understand and practise enough of it to rank with any of our neighbours either in commerce or in war. The truth is, the first rudiments of mechanical arts are acquired by practice and experience; and then scientific rules are applied to the supply of defects, and to the correction of principles. Certainly, when royal professorships are instituted, with comfortable salaries, they may soon be filled; the officers will endeavour to recommend themselves by the parade of business, and will be of service in the line of patronage: but we have enough of such ministerial conveniences already. Under a free government, as we understand this to be, the genius of a people exerts itself freely in all shapes, at the call of their collective or individual interests; and when patrons are wanted, they rife up in public-spirited associations. Such an association was formed in 1791, for the improvement of naval architecture; and the list of the members is highly encouraging both in number and respectability, with the Duke of Clarence at their head. The

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The inflitution is yet too young to effect great things: but the papers that are now communicated relate to some important points, and are an earnest of what may be expected when the society has arrived at more maturity. See our summer notices of the institution of this laudable society, and of several publications to which it has given rise, Rev. October 1791, p. 191, and May 1792, p. 96.

GEOGRAPHY.

Art. 31. A Gazetteer of France, containing every City, Town, and Village in that extensive Country, shewing the Distances of the Cities and great Towns from Paris; and at the End of the small Towns and Villages noting the Post Offices through which Letters, &c. are conveyed to each. With a descriptive Account of every Country; Boundaries, Extent, and Natural Produce. Including the chief Harbours, Bays, Rivers, Canals, Forests, Mines, Hills, Vales, and Medicinal Springs. The whole including above Forty Thousand Places. Illustrated with a Map, divided into Departments. 12mo. 3 Vols. 10s. 6d. Boards. Robinsons. 1793.

At an æra when the eyes of all Europe are directed toward the unhappy convultions of France, a particular Gazetteer of that country will frequently be wanted by those who interest themselves most in its affairs. In this work, situations are described according to the antient division into provinces, while the map conforms to the modern circles and departments; and an alphabetical list of the present departments, compared with the provinces and dioceses, is prefixed. Recent events have rendered such additions necessary; and it will be no discreommendation of these volumes to inform our readers, that they are professed to be little more than a translation of the Dictionnaire Geographique Portatif de la France.

PHILOSOPHY.

Art. 32. Philosophical Estays on Various Subjects; viz. Space, Substance, Rody, Spirit, the Operations of the Soul in Union with the Body, Innate Ideas, Perpetual Consciousness, Place and Motion of Spirits, the Departing Soul, the Resurrection of the Body, Production and Operations of Plants and Animals. With some Remarks on Mr. Locke's Essay on the Human Understanding. To which is subjoined a brief Scheme of Ontology, or the Science of Being in general, with its Assections. By liaac Watts, D.D. The fifth Edition, corrected. 8vo. pp. 410. 5s. Boards, Murgatroyd. 1793.

As a republication of a valuable old work is a matter of useful information to the literary world, we shall not depart from our province in announcing this new edition of one of the philosophical productions of a writer, concerning whom Dr. Johnson justly says, "his mind was capacious, his curiosity excursive, and his industry continual." If, in his metaphysical writings, Dr. Watts sometimes fancifully it dulated himself in conjectures, and took up opinions on slight grounds, they have always sufficient ingenuity and originality to excite the studyet's curiosity, and to repay his attention. One trait in

We are affure! that this edition is printed verbatim from that which last preceded it.



Monthly Catalogue, Education, &c.

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the character of Dr. Watts, overlooked by Dr. Johnson, and not perhaps sufficiently known, we shall particularly mention; namely, that his mind was always open to conviction, and that, toward the latter end of his life, he abandoned many of the prejudices of his younger days. When he wrote his Lyric poems, he found it necessary to invoke the "Sister of Faith, fair Charity," to enable him to allow the heretical Mr. Locke a place in heaven: but, in the preface to these philosophical essays, he acknowleges himself indebted to this great man for the enlargement of his own conceptions, and bears the

following grateful testimony to his merit:

Mr. Locke is another illustrious name. He has proceeded to break our philosophical fetters, and to give us further release from the bondage of ancient authorities and maxims. I acknowledge the. light and satisfaction which I have derived from many of his works. His admirable letter of toleration led me as it were into a new region of thought, wherein I found myself surprised and charmed with There was no room to doubt in the midst of sun-beams. These leaves triumphed over all the remnant of my prejudices on the side of bigotry; and taught me to allow all men the same freedom to chuse their religion, as I claim to chuse my own. Blessed be God that this doctrine has now taken such root in Great Britain, that I trust neither the powers nor the frauds of Rome, nor the malice. pride, and darkness of mankind, nor the rage of hell shall ever prevail against it.'

We shall be forgiven for stepping a little out of our way, in order to pay our homage to the great name of Mr. Locke-a name which

will always be dear to the friends of science and of freedom.

EDUCATION.

Art. 33. Grammatical Institutes of the French Language, defigned for the Use of Schools. By Mr. Des Carrieres. Part the First. Guide to the French Pronunciation. 12mo. pp. 145.

Boards. Elmiley. 1793.

The rules for pronouncing the French language are here brought within a narrow compass, and illustrated by a variety of examples. distinctly arranged. A second and a third part are promised, to complete the author's plan.

POETRY and DRAMATIC.

Art. 34. Sight, The Cavern of Woe, and Solitude. Poems by Mrs. Mary Robinson, Author of Poems, &c. Ainsi va le Monde, a Monody to the Memory of Sir Joshua Reynolds, Vancenza, &c. &c. 4to. pp. 32. 25. 6d. fewed. Evans, and Becket. 1793. Having recently had feveral opportunities of drawing the attention

of our readers to this ingenious lady's poetical performances, little

remains for us to add, with respect to this publication.

Of the three poems, above mentioned, in the title page, the first is addressed to John Taylor, Esq. (Oculift) in compliment to his profestional skill.—In deploring the dreadful misfortune of those who have to lament the lofs of Sight, that chief of human bleffings! this poem manifests great pathos, feeling, and tenderness in the fair writer; with some strokes of sublimity, which strongly confirm the

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opinion that we entertained of her genius, on the perusal of some of

her earliest compositions.

The Cavern of Woe abounds with proofs of a glowing and fruitful imagination. Fortitude, Melancholy, Horror, Envy, &c. &c. are well personified and characterized. The painter will here meet with imagery and forms, which the pencil might seize with advantage.

Solitude is a subject which seems to suit the native turn of this lady's mind: it surnishes many ideas on which she dwells with rapture: bat, surely, they are all,—or most of them,—drawn from the airy

regions of romance!

The following reflection, which concludes the last mentioned poem, may be given as a specimen of the writer's moralizing and pensive

disposition:

Ah! Who can tell the various pangs that wait On SPLENDID MISERY? the hidden woes, That thronging round the canopy of gold, Pernicious, moth-like, fred upon the wretch Who groans beneath the PAGEANTRY OF STATE! Who can describe the agonizing throbs, The thirsty fevers, or the languid hours, That sated luxury is doom'd to own? Who can avert the strongly-poison'd shaft Of Envy, glancing from the recreant foul? Or who can bear the flow-confuming touch Of unrequited Love; the subtle smile Of insolent DISDAIN; or the fell grasp Of keen INGRATITUDE, " the Child of Hell!" Or who, but those, the worst of human kind, Who batten on the miseries of Man, Would, robbing nature of her ample means, Crouch the base knee, or prompt the fawning tongue To gain applause from IGNORANCE and PRIDE?

Then, welcome, SOLITUDE! The sphere is THINE, That gives the purest passions ample scope! That bids the soul beam with exterior grace Of light reslected from the source within! And when its essence shall evaporate, Fann'd by the desolating wing of TIME; When this dull scene of transitory life, And all its sorrows, all its joys, are o'er; One sparkling atom, from its prison clay, Shall soar, to mingle with its native Heav'n!

Although we have unreltrainedly, however briefly, expressed our favourable opinion of the general merit of these poems, we feel ourselves obliged, by that reverence for TRUTH, to which all other regards must give way, to confess that we do not think them, on the whole, superior, if equal, to some of this lady's former productions.

Art. 35. A Poetical Epissle to the Hon. Thomas Erskine. 4to. 1s. Parsons.

It appears, to us, that Mr. Erskine has incurred the penalty of this lampoon, by his having acted as counsel for T. Paine, at his late

List

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See M. R. for January last, p. 89.—There is in this performance less poetry than virulence; -in brief, we see a wren of Parnassus pecking at the eagle.—Personal abuse is the tax which, in these Billingsgate days, men of abilities (especially public men) pay for being eminent,—whether they rank with the Ins or the Outs.

The King's House at Winchester. A Poem, in Two Parts. By the Rev. John Wooll, B. A. Fellow of New College, Oxon. 4to. pp. 34. 3s. Robinsons. 1793.

The author of this poem, in a strain of decent versification, pays a tribute of applause to the united committees for the relief of the French refugee clergy; and, at the same time, endeavours to preserve, by the balm of rhime, the remembrance of the building called the King's House at Winchester. Thrice lucky house! for what but jong is competent to thine immortality?

> Vixêre fortes ante Agamemnona Multi: sed omnes illacrymabiles Urgentur, ignotique longâ Nocte, carent quia VATE SACRO!

Hor.

Yet are we induced to prophely that thou wilt outlive the present panegyric. The reverend author will pardon us, for we do not intend to unsay what we have said in commendation of his performance: we only mean to hint that authors of mediocrity labour for oblivion.

Let the poet, however, speak for himself:-

On that same site, where once the cassle stood, With many a Gothic arch and turret proud, How chang'd * the scene, that meets the exile's eyes! How proud the new creation seems to rise! Thy hand, O Wren +! pourtrays the vast design, And its stupendous beauties all are thine.

' Yet, ah! in vain th' ingenious master plies His happiest skill, and each glad labour tries; In vain the eager sculptor boasts his art, And proud mechanicks, ardent, take a part, To swell the triumphs of the royal dome, Above the patterns of immortal Rome, Death t, unrelenting, breaks th'illufive fpell, And drags the Monarch to an humbler cell.

· Here might have shone, in each returning sport, The gay profusion of a vicious court, Minstrels and music, poetry and play, The ball by night, and costly feast by day, The sportive mask, friend to the hidden fire, And assignation, fruit of fond desire;

[•] On or near the fite of the original castle, Charles the Second, ann. Dom. 1683, laid the foundation of a magnificent Royal Palace, the shell only of which was finished, and which still retains the name

of the King's House.'

+ Sir Christopher Wren.'

The death of the king, Feb. 6. 1684-5, prevented the progress and execution of this most noble plan."

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Here from the cupola * the wedded dame, Whose roving heart had felt a newer flame, And, from a maiden's timid caution free, Had yielded to some witling debauchee, (While the brave husband dar'd his country's foe And gather'd laurels for his luckless brow,) Fearful, might trace, with microscopic eye, Each waving fail, each flaming beacon high, With joy diffembled the mourn'd moments count, And, Catharine +, watch the lightnings of thy mount. So when, with honours crown'd and regal spoil, Return'd Atrides from a ten years toil, From hill to hill the blazing comet roll'd, And Nauplia last th' approaching triumph told, While at Mycenæ the adultress Qucen 1, The tale of growing infamy to skreen, In vain repress'd the brow of conscious shame, And ficken'd at the once-lov'd victor's name."

NOVEL.

Art. 37. The Emigrants, or the History of an Expatriated F2. mily, being a Delineation of English Manners, drawn from real Characters. Written in America, by G. Imlay, Esq. Author of the Topographical Description of the Western Territory. 12m2.

3 vols. 9s. sewed. Hamilton. 1793. In a novel written by the intelligent and lively author of the topographical description of the western territory of America, the public will naturally look for something more than a sentimental tale; and we can affure our readers that they will find in these volumes many things which are not commonly to be perceived in writings of this class. Not that the author is incapable of unfolding the tender passion, and of expressing its enchanting emotions. He frequently pours forth high and almost idolatrous encomiums on the fair sex; and he describes the rise and progress of love with all the ardour of youthful sensibility:—but he comprehends within the plan of his work many other objects, which will render it interesting to the philosopher, as well as to the lover. Several lively descriptions of American scenes, both natural and artificial, are introduced. The characters of the piece are so distinctly marked, and so perfectly consonant to the present state of manners, that we can easily credit the writer's affertion, that the principal part of his story is founded on facts, and that, in every instance, he has had a real character for his Reflections frequently occur, in the course of the narrative, which discover a mind inured to philosophical speculation. On the general subject of politics, Mr. Imlay expresses himself with the freedom of an enlightened philosopher, and advances sentiments which will be generally approved by those, who are canable of divesting themselves

' 1 Clytemnestra.'

A cupola was defigned thirty feet higher than the roof, which would have been feen at fea.'

^{&#}x27;+ The beacon on the top of St. Catharine's Hill in the Isle of Wight.



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of the powerful prejudices arising from felf interest:—but the principal design of the work appears to be to turn the public attention toward the present state of society with regard to marriage. It is an opinion, which this writer seems to think it of great importance to communicate and support, that the semale world is at present, in confequence of the rigour of matrimonial institutions, in a state of oppressive vassalage; and that it would greatly increase the happiness of society, if divorces could be more easily obtained. Several of the characters and incidents of these volumes are introduced for the purpose of illustrating and confirming this observation; and the question,

in different parts of the work, is expressly discussed.

After all, however, that Mr. I. has advanced on the subject, it may, we apprehend, be maintained that the inconveniencies, which have slowed from the existing laws respecting marriage, have proceeded more from the deprayed manners of the age, than from the nature of the institutions themselves; and that the perpetuity and inviolability of the marriage contract contribute essentially toward the virtue and the general happiness of society, – however unfortunate may be the lot of individuals, many instances of which, it is confessed, we have known, without being able to afford relief to the guiltless sufferers;—and can there be a more disagreeable situation for a man of feeling, than to witness the distresses which he cannot alleviate?

POLITICAL and COMMERCIAL.

Art. 38. The Caje of Officers of Excise; with Remarks on the Qualifications of Officers; and on the numerous Evils arising to the Revenue, from the Insufficiency of the present Salary. Humbly addressed to the Hon. and Right Hon. the Members of both Houses of Parliament. By Thomas Paine, Member of the National Convention of France, and Author of the Works entitled "Rights of Man," "Common Sense," &c. &c. 8vo. 1s. Jordan. 1793. We are forry to remark that this title page, which is evidently

manufactured by the " putter forth" of the work, is calculated to deceive; for it induces the reader to believe that it is a pamphlet recently written. He is indeed undeceived by turning over the leaf,

where, in the preface, he is informed that

This little piece, which is totally confined to the subject mentioned in the title, appears to have been the first literary attempt of Mr. Paine, and to have been published when his situation in life was obscure, and his means of information very scanty: yet, under all the disadvantages attending on such circumstances, "his virgin effort" discovers a great share of that vigour and subtlety of mind, which, in his more mature works, he has invariably displayed. It made its appearance when an application to parliament in behalf of the inferior officers of the revenue was in contemplation; and, if we consider the very able manner in which the peculiar difficulties in the fituation of that useful body of men are exhibited, and the benefits which would accrue to the revenue by granting them relief, are displayed, we must conclude, that the impression it made on the public mind must have been very considerable.

The observations contained in this little pamphlet, are remarkably shrewd and acute, and the style is concise and pointed: the acceptable style is concise and pointed:

pos

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thor possessing a high degree (which is the gift only of men of powerful genius) the happy talent of striking out new and uncommon restlections, of exhibiting the different views of a subject, and placing it in sudden and unexpected lights. This is performed in a surprising manner in this little composition. Every reader of judgment will admire that invention by which the writer, on a subject so barren and destitute of matter, has produced such new and striking observations,

without degenerating into triviality or common-place."

We agree with the author of the preface that Mr. Paine, on this subject, though in itself infinitely trifling when compared to those on which he has since treated, displays the same active, energetic, and discriminative powers, which have raised him to the notice which he has recently attracted. The arguments employed in behalf of his brother officers, for he was himself at that time in the excise, are, that the scanty provision made for them, which, deductions included, amounted only to one shilling and ninepence farthing per day, was a fum not equal to the gain of many of the lowest mechanics; that the office was an office of trust; that consequently it was the interest of government to place those who exercised it above temptation: that actual corruption did widely exist, because of the parsimony of government; that negligence of duty was likewise a source of loss to the revenue; and that men capable of the employment would either not accept it, or, having accepted it, would foon find it their interest to seek a better profession.

Art. 29. Club Law; or the Confequences of a Reform in the Representation of the Commons of Great Britain, exemplified in a short Description of what has followed a Reform in the Representation of the Tiers Etat, or House of Commons, in France. By the Author (— Francklyn, Esq.) of "A Candid Inquiry into the Nature and Origin of Government." 8vo. 1s. Owen, Piccadilly.

In our Review for July 1792, p. 350, we reported the " Candid Inquiry, &c." written by the author of the present pamphlet. What we faid respecting the merits of that work, will, in a great measure, apply, characteristically, to his "Club Law;" which is, for the most part, a warm declamation against all persons, societies, &c. that have been distinguished as advocates for a reform of the British Parliament: a measure which is here represented as pregnant, in its nature, and probable consequences, with all the horrors and miseries in which our neighbours on the continent have recently involved their country, by their unhappy attempts at a reformation of their government.—On this fingular subject, (singular, we mean, as to the late revolution in France,) we have not yet met with a just and true parailel, though comparative statements and deductions have been often attempted by our political investigators: so widely distimilar are the circumstances, situations, and views of the two nations !- Admitting, however, the principles of this author, and making every candid allowance for his strong attachment to one side of the question, as well as for the violence of his manner, he must, certainly, be regarded as possessing considerable literary abilities,—so far, at least, as style and diction are concerned.

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Art. 40. A Friendly Address to the Members of the several Clubs, in the Parish of St. Ann, Westminster, associated for the Purpose of obtaining a Reform in Parliament. By William Knox, Elq. 8vo.

pp. 36. 1s. White, &c. 1793.

The argument, or, rather, the doctrine, of this pamphlet may be expressed in algebraic characters, by +a-a; as one part completely leftroys the other. At the beginning, it is maintained that the House of Commons is not a House of Representatives, nor was ever supposed to be; yet, at the end, it is laid down that, on the inherent indefeasible right of the freeholders of England to sit in parliament, either themselves, or by knights elected by them, as their representstives, rests the whole fabric of our constitution. Mr. Knox admits that the constitution, in its primitive state, included a representation of the trading or mercantile interest, as well as of the landed property: to recommend, therefore, a more particular attention to this principle in the formation of our present Commons House cannot be termed innovation. Indeed Mr. K. does not say that it is; he approves of granting to certain inhabitants of Birmingham, Mancheszer, and Sheffield, and the opulent inhabitants of other towns who have the fame claim, a share in the legislature; but, on the principle of the representation of mercantile property, those places, whence luch property is departed, should lose the power of sending burgesses to parliament, as well as the flourishing towns acquire it. Mr. K. must admit that to allow those places to fend burgesses to the Commons House, where there is now (though it were otherwise formerly, when they were invested with this privilege,) no trading nor mercanile interest to represent, does not accord with the antient spirit of the constitution. In order to justify the rash attempt to tax America, the idea of representation, as necessary to the legality of taxation, was scouted: but, by the 25 Charles II. which is an ast to enable the county valatine of Durham to fend knights and burgeffes to ferve in par-imment (extracted by Mr. K.) the inhabitants being equally liable to all payments, rates, and subsidies, with other counties, is urged as the reason why they ought to be also represented. The doctrine of representation is unquestionably the basis of our constitution :- how far it ought to extend, is a point on which politicians are much divided.

Art. 41. Authentic Report of the Debate in the House of Commons on the 6th and 7th of May 1793, on Mr. Gray's Motion for a Re-

form in Parliament; containing the Speeches of

Mr. Grey, The Hon. R. B. Jenkinson, Mr. Powys, Mr. Windham, The Hon. T. Erskine, Mr. Chancellor Pitt, Mr. Stanley,

Mr. Buxton,

Mr. Duncombe,

Sir William Young, Sir William Milner. Mr. Francis,

The Earl of Mornington, Mr. Whitbread, jun.

Mr. Anstruther, Mr. Sheridan,

Mr. Adam, and Mr. Fox.

To which is added, a correct Copy of the Petition of the FRIENDS 25.6d. Debrett. 1793. OF THE PEOPLE. 8vo. pp. 150. The following report, extracted from the Parliamentary Register,

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gives the folless and most accurate account of the debate above mentioned. The editors of that work have, at the request of several noblemen and gentlemen, been induced to publish it separately, in order more completely to gratify the curiosity of the public, and enable them to decide on the merits of a question which, from its great importance, the particular circumstances under which it was brought forward, and the didinguished talents of the several speakers, has excited the most general attention?

ADVERTISEMENT PREFIXED.

This is a very valuable publication.

Art. 42. The Condail of the King of Pruffia and General Dumourier inwefligated. By Lady Wallace. 8vo. pp. 156. 2s. 6d. fewed.

Debreit. 1791.

Difficult as it is to develope the motives of kings and statesmen, writers will be continually attempting the task. Shrewd guesses may be made, and sometimes they guess rightly. Lady Wallace, who undertakes to investigate the conduct of the king of Pruffia in joining with the Emperor in the late invasion of Prance, attributes what she calls that sham campaign to a desire of diminishing the formidable power of the House of Austria, of correcting the discontent and bad discipline that had crept into nis own troops during their idleness at home, and of concealing his ambitious schemes on Poland. Neither of these resfons can justify invasion, nor do honour to the King of Prussia. Lady Wallace does not produce them for any such purpose. It is evident that she thinks meanly of him, and of La Fayette, whom she pronounces a victim to the tears of his lovely Queen: but not to of General Dumourier. This, wonderful little hero, as he is here called, only four feet ten inches high, Lady W. highly applauds, and warmly vindicates. She contends that he was uniformly attached to the original conflitution, that he always avowed his loyalty, and was always an en my to republicanism. Lady W., from her intimate acquaintance with the General, may be supposed to know his political creed: but how this can be made to accord with feveral of his letters during his campaign in the Netherlands, it is difficult to prove. His female advocate also afferts, in justification of his integrity, that he has not appropriated a farthing of the public-money, with which he was entrufted, to his own use. Against this affertion, the clerks of the Bank may find reason, on turning over their books, for placing a Quer;?

The greatest part of this pamphlet contains an amusing account of Lady W. is late travels on the continent, during which she was introduced to Gen. Dumburier, the Misses Fernick, young Egalité, Baptisse, &c. She bears testimony to the good conduct of the French army toward the inhabitants of the Netherlands, and afferts that, at the battle of Jemmappe, Dumourier had no more than 30,000 effective

men.

This pamphlet also names many persons to whom Dumourier was introduced during his late short stay in this country. It is a halfy publication, written on the spur of the occasion, in eight days; and, in this view, it solicits some indulgence. Among the typographical errors, we find the Sea of Rome, for the See of Rome.

Art.

Art. 43. Authentic Copy of a Petition praying for a Reform of Parliament, presented to the House of Commons, May 6, 1793. Published by the Society, The Friends of the People, associated for the Purpose of obtaining a Parliamentary Reform. 4to. pp. 15. 3d. Stuart.

The fate of this petition is well known.—When petitioners come forward with their officious offers to demonstrate a string of unpleasant truths, what can they expect?—Without doors (and here the case is altered,) it may be thought to be drawn up with much ability, to contain matters of great pith and moment, and to merit attention. An octavo edition is published at the price of 1d.

Art. 44. A Letter from John Cartwright, E/q. to a Friend at Boston, in the County of Lincoln; and to all other Commoners who have affociated in Support of the Constitution. 8vo. pp. 68. 2s.

Ridgway. 1793.

REV. Aug. 1793.

Mr. [late Major] Cartwright is so well known to the public as a zealous advocate for the reform of parliament, that the design and spirit of his letter will be easily imagined. Having been, as he apprehends, the first who made the descess in parliamentary representation, together with a systematic and constitutional reform, the subject of a distinct treatise, he exults in the prospect that the triumph of the cause in which he is embarked is not far distant. Though, for reasons assigned in this pamphlet, Mr. Cartwright declined signing the declaration of the Association at Boston, he declares himself a fast friend to the constitution, who has watched over it for years, while the present associators were sleeping, and that he is still as zealously as ever its desender. On what grounds, and in what manner, he means to defend it, will best appear from an extract:

The affociations having effectually chased away the phantom republicanism, those who were affrighted at that spectre may now rest in peace. As the interests of the crown and the nobility are therefore in perfect fafety, the affociators have now full leifure to turn their attention to the remaining branch of the constitution. Here, there is reason to believe, they will find, not merely, (as in the other case) a phantom of the imagination, but a disease that threatens the very springs of If danger to the other branches of the government did in truth exist, it must have been in mere embryo; and, as appears to me, within their own unaided means to have averted. No man will fay that incroachment bad actually been made upon them; or that the flightest violation of the least of their privileges bad even been attempted. What privilege had the nobles lost? What prerogative of the crown had been wrested from it? Or were any of their rights undermined by unconstitutional acts of parliament? Or were any of the benefits of those rights defeated by any imposition, or fraud, or corruption practifed by the people? No: Nothing of all this Not one tittle of the long catalogue of their had happened. honours, their rights, their privileges, their powers or prerogatives bad been touched. They were, and they still are, in the possession and enjoyment of them all. In their respective stations, they have, therefore, the full benefit of the constitution. To them, it is indeed a constitution deserving of all praise. They have no complaint

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to make. What the constitution intended them to be, that they are. The king is, in his own person, one component part of the legislature, with undivided majesty, and an independent will. The peers, in like manner, have a fecond share in the legislature to themselves, independent and uncontrolled. None can partake with his Majesty in bis share of enacting laws. That power he exercises either in person or by representatives of his own chusing; and to the duration of their power he jets what bounds he sees sit. Neither can the power of the lords, or the limitation of the proxies who occasionally represent them, be partaken or invaded. It is not possible for the commons to foist into the seats of the nobles a single creature of their own. If then, so far as his Majeffy and the nobles are concerned, all is honesty and fair dealing: if, respecting them, the letter and the spirit of the constitution are in perfect harmony; shall we not demand that, with regard to the COMMONS, the same honesty and fair dealing, the same literal interpretation, and the same substantial enjoyment shall take place!—Here, my worthy friend, let us pause. - The enquiry on which we are about to enter, is awful and momentous. On the issue must depend the falvation, or the ruin of our country.—Here it is, that will be shewn who are they that best understand that constitution, which is the object of our solicitude; and who are they that truly seek to establish a government by king, lords, and commons. It is on all hands admitted, that the people are not made for the government, but the government for the people. It must therefore be also admitted, that such is the transcendent superiority of the commons or people, to the other two branches of the government, that it is merely for the fake of the People that royalty and nobility make parts of the conflitution at all. If this be true, with what a facred regard to the rights of the people, ought their branch of the legislature ever to have been preserved! Its purity should be as snow; its freedom, and its inde-pendence unsuspected. These qualities it can only receive by emanating spontaneously from the aubele people, by being a fair, an equal, and a complete representation of them; and renewable at their pleafure. - Here then, my dear Sir, I conjure you and every affociator, not to shrink from a painful duty; but to have the courage to look into the state of the representation of your country; and honestly w examine it by the line and the rule of the constitution. If it would square by that line and that rule, all would be well; and happy would it be But if it shall be found out of all shape, and form, and rule; if, at the fight of it, your sense of justice shall recoil; and your regard for decency be shocked; and if you shall see in it the latent, and not very distant, subversion of our liberties, unless that representation be reformed; then am I confident that there will be but one sentiment amongst us. With one voice we shall say, "Render unto Cæfar the things that be Cæfar's;" and UNTO THE PEOPLE THE THINGS THAT BELONG TO THE PEOPLE.'

In the fame firm and manly tone, the author proceeds, through the remainder of the letter, to affert the necessity of a parliamentary reform, and to maintain that the prefent is the most proper time. The necessity is thus forcibly stated:

[•] His Commissioners for giving assent to acts of parliament.'

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To fay that a reform in Great Britain ought to be refisted, were as much as to fay, that ferious, well-founded, discontents ought to remain; and that, how fully soever the king and the lords ought to be made easy respecting their rights under the constitution, the people ought to have folid ground of diffatisfaction and complaint remaining amongst them. But this will not be the language of any conscientious affociator who has undertaken to support the constitution, and who has represented it, that is, in theory, as a model of political perfecsion, worthy of the people's warmest attachment. No: between the ding, the lords, and the commons, every upright affociator will hold a steady, even balance; and do strict justice to each. At the same time that he, being one of the people, means to act fairly by royalty and mobility, he cannot mean to give them more and the people ies than their respective shares in the government; and he will spurn at the chought of being himself cajoled into a dupe, for undermining that part of the constitution where his own rights, and all that is dear to him are deposited. While he so affectionately steps forward to guard the rights of the crown from even the very apprehension of attack; will he shut his eyes to the criminal existence of treasury boroughs, and to the violation of decency, in a long list of members of the people's House of Parliament holding enormous emoluments under the crosun. ? While the affociator who, as one of the people, so honourably, and so disinterestedly interposes his shield to protect the ungrateful peerage from the darts of republicanism, can he without indignation hear, that eighty-eight seats in the House of Commons, are become mere appendages to the estates of certain noblemen, while feventy-two more, by means of influence, are notoriously at their command; making together one Hundred and SIXTY SEATS filled by the creatures of the lords +! and under what other class than that of the arithocracy, will reason and fact permit him to arrange those wealthy borough-holding commoners, who equally command one hundred and thirty-nine seats more !? While you, my dear fir, of the affociations, tell us how perfect and how excellent our constitution is, are you aware that it has sustained so alarming a violation—a violation which in effect destroys its effence and defeats its end? Will you by your language invite the whole

Kk2 fraternity

The vote in the Irish House of Commons for a committee to enquire into the State of the Representation, has been accompanied with leave to bring in a Place Bill, a Pension Bill, and a Responsibility Bill.

^{. &#}x27;4' There is reason to believe that this account is several short of the real number.'

^{* † — &}quot;Seeing themselves already approaching, or at least in a fituation of being one day incorporated in the rank of nobility, they must discover their own interest in defending its rights." See Science of Legislation, p. 157.

[&]quot;If to the word "rights," this writer added "and usurpations," perhaps he would have done no violence to truth. Within the last ten years, nine of such borough-holding commoners have been created peers; and these nine place no less than twenty-four members in the House of Commons. See Report on Representation, p. 29.

fraternity of the borough-brokers to turn you into ridicule? Will you refuse to hear, or to see, when boroughs are hawked about, or put to auction? Or will you connive at the golden sons of the East, when they buy up seats of legislation in parcels? And if your Hosse of Commons have been by its forms compelled quietly to enter upon its very journals, the Petition of an intrepid man, stating that the seats in that House " are as notoriously rented and bought as the standings for cattle at a fair;" will you, I ask, who affociate in support of our excellent constitution, think it a time to let such things pass without enquiry? These, my friend, are the flagitious practices, the true seditions, conspiracies and treasons against the constitution, which Mr. Pitt sught to have proclaimed through the land; and which, in most serious truth, now demand the vigilance of our associations."

The only effectual remedy for public grievances, in this author's opinion, is that the people shall have the chusing of their own parliament, and for their own time:—but, for what he advances on this important

political topic, we refer our readers to the pamphlet.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 45. Historical Memoirs of the Town and Parish of Tiverton, in the County of Devon, collected from the best Authorities, with Notes and Observations; by Martin Dunssord, Merchant. 410. pp. 466. 125. 6d. Boards. Marsh.

This volume, published by subscription, is dedicated to the virtues and industrious poor of Tiverton; because it was originally undertaken to advance their interest. A diligent inquiry into charitable donations, at the same time that it was productive of utility to the parish and its indigent members, farther gave rise to several historical anecdotes, which sinduced the author to extend his plan; to collate, arrange, and publish them, for the general information of the inhabitants of Tiverton, and those in any manner connected with them, intermixed

ted.'—The author does not pretend to elegance of composition.

The volume is divided into six departments, under the following heads—Concise general history;—Accounts of the Lords of the hundred, manor, and borough of Tiverton;—Chronological list of the public donations;—Remarkable occurrences;—Description of the parish and town, antiquities, public buildings, &c. with some

with as many general observations as could with propriety be admit-

biographical anecdotes;—Copies and extracts of original papers and records.

Under each of these heads we meet with particulars worth our notice.—The public benefactions surprize us; as the writer remarks, so extraordinary a list sew parishes of equal extent and population in the kingdom can boast;—he adds that, by wise and virtuous management, it might be productive of great advantages to the community at large, and to the poor inhabitants in particular:—it is to be hoped that so important a hint will be received with attention.

The original name of the place was Twyford, Twoford, and thence Twoford-1011, from its fituation between two rivers. It appears to

[&]quot; Mr. Horne Tooke."

^{&#}x27; † Jovis 9 Die Decembris, 1790.'

have been a village, on a little hill, and the capital of the hundred which bears its name, in the reign of Alfred, A. D. 872 and 890. About the year 1370, the woollen manufactory was introduced, which

was fully established in 1500, and became very profitable.

The history of manufacturing places will generally furnish an argument in favour of liberty, civil and religious. Despotism and oppression weaken and injure, while rational freedom fosters and advances it.—The feudal power, with respect to Tiverton, appears to have ended about the year 1756.—Whether the town received any folid advantages from being constituted a borough and corporation, we presume not to determine. In the reign of James the First, a charter was thought to be, politically or really, requifite, on account of some calamities which the town had sustained; -and a charter was obtained, which, if it conveyed any benefit of another kind, was affuredly limited and oppressive in respect to the rights of electing representatives in parliament. On some occasion, this charter was forfeited: great assiduity was employed to persuade the inhabitants to apply for a renewal; and it was infinuated for this purpose that what had been objectionable in the former would now be removed. at length, under this apprehension, procured; and endeavours were used that it might be received with great appearances of joy: but the people soon afterward found that they were deluded, particularly as to the right of election, which remained on the same footing as before.

Mr. Dunsford writes with a greater degree of liberality than we sometimes discover in works of this kind: he seems to give a just account of his motives and views when, in the preface, he declares, that the author is not conscious of retaining unjustifiable partialities: he has not written a paragraph intentionally to offend, nor suppressed any he judged important, to gratify the prejudices of any persons, fects, or parties.'—At the same time that he disclaims selfish inducements, partial representation, or whatever might detract from the goodwill which he professes to entertain for all mankind—' he expresses his hope that if his plan should not be so satisfactorily executed, as the curious reader might defire or expect, it will be attributed to the scarcity of materials, and the few sources from whence authentic in-

formation could be attained.'

and entertaining volume.

Beside two engraved views of the parish and of the town of Tiverton, drawings are given of-the castle, or rather its remains, first erected in the reign of Henry I.; - St. Peter's, the parish church, a respectable gothic pile, the work of different and distant ages, but more regular than might, from that circumstance, have been expected; - Blundell's free grammar school; a handsome building, well endowed, and productive of great utility. Peter Blundell, once in the lowest circumstances, raised himself by industry and virtue to considerable fortune, of which he made a benevolent and honourable use; he died in 1601. We do not find in this work any account of Druidical, Roman, or Saxon antiquities, nor have we observed many remarks of the agricultural or botanical kind, &c.; yet it is, on the whole, an acceptable

A petition on this subject, very nearly unanimous, was presented to the House of Commons in the year 1782, but it does not appear to have produced any valuable effect.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE, Theology, &c.

THEOLOGY, &c.

Opufcule, ou Essai, &c. — An Essay, attempting to reform ous Prejudices, and to produce Men of Virtue and Understand-By a Friend of the Human Race. 12mo. pp.286. 35.

Fowler, Covent Garden. work is an attack on the authority of holy writ, and on the r of the priethood. Of the validity of the author's reasoning, he vice or virtue of his incredulity, we must suffer the world It is our business to announce books and opinions, and, on of liberal criticism, to exercise such talents as we possess, for faction of those who think our judgment worth consulting. quiry being at once the fource and tell of truth, we confider it duty to indulge no anger nor refentment against opinions, they should be opposite to our own; and, when the spirit of er is evidently warmed by an ardent wish to benefit mankind, er his mistakes or his doctrines may be, we regard his intention nplacency. With respect to the present essayist, were we to give racts from his performance, we might subject ourselves to the of aiding, however unintentionally, the defign of an infidel by promoting the circulation of anti-feriptural notions. Beapprehension struck us, we had actually proceeded to translate, of specimen, part of his severe attack on the character and of Moles, both as a legislator and as the leader and commandis people: but the feverity of his invectives on the Hebrew foon obliged us to close the book; leaving the writer to the whose office and duty it more immediately is, to guard the ild, and to keep out the wolves:-1

horrid scenes displayed by them before our eyes may be considered as a warning to mankind, and that the lesson which we should learn from

them is, to beware of the errors of our neighbours.

As it is one thing to shew kindness, and another to depart from the truth, previously to pleading the cause of the French clergy, in the second sermon, the preacher gives a concise history of popery, exposes its errors, and justifies the protestant faith. His zeal for truth, however, does not abate the ardour of his charity. He recommends the French clergy, as persecuted men, to the compassion and benevelence of his hearers; and he concludes with hoping that the kindness of protestants may induce the Roman Catholic clergy attentively to weigh the substantial arguments on which Protestantism is founded.

Art. 48. In the Parish Church of St. Leonard, in Bridgnorth. By

William Corfer, A.B. 4to. 1s. Rivingtons.

Gour young men, (fays Mr. C.) are called on to go and fight against the enemies of their country, their laws, and religion. We wish them good luck, in the name of the Lord: —but though he deems the war a just one, he thinks it at the same time a visitation for our fins. It should seem, from his picture of the French nation, that they are much greater sinners than we are; which accounts for their having by much the greatest share of this sin-purging visitation. Mr. C.'s prayer, with which this sermon concludes, is truly a Christian's prayer.

Art. 49. At the Chapel in Stourbridge. By the Rev. J. Pattison, A.M. 4to. 1s. Rivingtons.

Atheists cannot be said to obey the precept (1 Peter, ii. 19.) which commands us to fear God; nor can regicides be said to bonour the king; nor can persons, to whom these epithets apply, be included in the brotherhood to whom we are commanded to extend our love:—ergo——Most excellent demonstration!

CORRESPONDENCE.

•• We have received a letter from Colchester, signed R. R. N. in which the writer refers us to an extract, given in our Review for April, from Mr. Trye's pamphlet on the swelling of the lower extremities, &c. Mr. Trye there proposes a copious administration of bark previously to the opening of large abscesses, and adds, that he fears he is the first in proposing this practice. To dispel this fear, our correspondent says that ' for more than these twenty years past, Dr. George Fordyce has constantly inculcated this doctrine in his lectures.' In proof, he quotes the following sentence from a manuscript copy of the Doctor's lectures, taken in 1773: 4' And therefore we should be solicitous, before we open the abscess, to use bark very freely, and such other medicines as tend to promote good suppuration, and to support the strength; and this must be done before the ulcer is made, as afterwards too frequently symptoms come on which will not allow of its use."

In the remaining part of his letter, R.R.N. observes, that we are sometimes rather dilatory in announcing medical and chirurgical works; and he mentions two books of this class which we have so

CORRESPONDENCE.

yet noticed. He might easily have increased his list; and he might also have observed; among the number, many which, having been published better those that he has selected, had a prior claim to out notice, which they have by no means forseited by inferiority or want of importance.—The remark quoted by him from one of the pamphlets in question may be just: that "every improvement of the healing art ought speedily to be communicated to the public, since, by its practice, the sufferings of the afflicted may be relieved, and their lives prolonged:"—but this refers more to original publications, than to our review of them; and it affords an excuse, which we are frequently inclined to admit, for inaccuracies and mistakes which ought otherwise to have been avoided.

In fine, we wish to remind those writers who are urgent for the speedy notice of their works, that we can only bring them forward by shrusting others back: as our pages are always full, the appearance of any one work must cause another's exclusion; and as in the court of literature there is no proper officer appointed for the purpose, we must be allowed to make out for ourselves a table and order of pre-

cedence.

1°4 ° A Constant Reader' is very right. We do not approve the ellipsis which he has cited: but such incuriæ will sometimes appear in compositions which are written in haste; and the sentence is intelligible.

†‡† P.B.'s information is received: but we do not apprehend that we should do any service to Mr.K. by communicating it to our readers.

111 In our number for June, when reviewing Dr. Darwin's Batanic Garden, we noticed that ingenious gentleman's bold conjecture concerning the origin of the Earth, Moon, &c.—We have fince received a letter, figned T. B., the writer of which informs us, that the fame conjecture occurred to the late Earl of Orford, three or four years ago; and that, in a letter to the editor of the Annals of Agriculture, published in that collection in the year 1789, the Earl advanced the fame theory. We have not this work at hand to confult: but it is not unlikely that fimilar ideas, on any philosophical subject, should occur to different learned men, without any inter-communication of fentiments.

^{* 4} We can, with pleasure, assure Amicus that measures are taking to answer the purpose for which he is so obligingly solicitous. In a very few months, he will probably hear more on this subject; and he will see that his friendly hints are not entirely thrown away.

^{1°1} We thank 'A Borderer' for his observation on line 39. p. 175. and line 5. p. 176. of the Review for June, that to girne is a metathess in common vse among the Scots for to grin; and not a derivative from the A.S. girran, to make a noise like birds, as the writer of that article appears to have supposed.

APPENDIX

TO THE

ELEVENTH VOLUME

OF THE

MONTHLY REVIEW ENLARGED.

FOREIGN LITERATURE.

ART. I. Memoires de l'Academie, &c. Memoirs of the Royal Academy of Sciences and Belles-Lettres of Berlin, from the Accession of Frederic William 11. to the Throne, in August 1786, to the End of the Year 1787. With the History of the Academy during this Period. 4to. 748 Pages. Berlin. 1792.

In the historical part of this volume, we find very little that can be interesting to our readers; most of whom would doubtless be as much disgusted as we were with the servile and extravagant adulation of the king, which abounds in all the speeches of the academicians. Under the government of their absolute monarchs, the literati of France have often been justly reprehended for the profusion of this fulfome incense, which they offered at the shrine of royalty: but the Pruffians feem resolved to excel all others in this contemptible Were the object of their hyperbolical admiration conduct. the most perfect of mortals, yet would the perpetual repetition of it be difgusting. The late King of Prussia was certainly a man of talents and abilities, which, when compared with those of contemporary monarchs, were splendid and respectable: but with many great qualities, he united many absurd prejudices; and his conduct was often capricious, and very far from being always just. We are therefore forry to see that M. Bode has been so mean and injudicious, as to feign a constellation repre-'fenting the fword of this monarch. This piece of flattery might . have passed uncensured amid the mythological absurdities of the antients, among whom the little knowlege which they possessed App. Rev. Vol. xi. Ll

AR2 Memoirs of the Royal Academy of Sciences, &c. of Berlin.

concerning the heavenly bodies was subservient to the purposes of political superstition: but that, in an age enlightened by science, astronomy should be prostituted, to pamper the gross appetite of individual vanity, is a real dishonour to mankind. We hope that the aftronomers of other countries will treat M. Bodz's curious invention with the same disregard, with which foreigners of science, and he among the rest, treated Dr. Herschel's courtly appellation of his newly-discovered planet. However, for the praise ascribed to Frederic II. some excuse may be offered; it is only to the extravagance of it that we object; we are forry to see the laurels justly due to him defaced by the creeping weeds, which the servility of courtiers would entwine among them: but what has the present King of Prusse done to deserve the applause, of which these gentlemen are so very profuse? He may perhaps have all the virtues that can adorn the human, and that ought to decorate the regal, charafter; if, as we hope, this be the case, we must admire his modefly in not having oftentatiously displayed them in his political conduct; we only wish that he would carry this modelly a little farther, and repress the fullome panegyrics of his academicians.

The only article in this part of the volume which deserves to be mentioned, is a speech by the secretary; who here takes a brief view of the revolutions of literary tafte, as influenced by fashion. We are told that the celebrated La Bruyers used to frequent the shop of a bookfeller, named Michallet, where he amused himself with reading the new pamphlets, and playing with the bookseller's daughter, an engaging child, of whom he was very fond. One day taking the manuscript of his Characters out of his pocket, he offered it to Michallet, fay-ing, "Will you print this? I know not whether you will gain any thing by it: but, should it succeed, let the profits make the dowry of my little friend here." The bookseller, though doubtful with respect to the result, ventured on the publication; the first impression was soon sold off, several editions were afterward printed, and the profits of the profit amounted to a very large sum; -and with this fortune, Miss Michallet was afterward very advantageously married.

In this discourse we find the Abbe Terraffon's Sethes mentioned with great praise. We read it with pleasure above twenty years ago; and we remember that we were particularly firuck with the account of the initiations, as being a inuch more pleasing illustration of the fixth book of the Æneid, than that by Bishop Warburton.

The memoirs, as usual, are distributed into four classes; of each of which we shall give fome account.

Language of Contract that the second of the con-

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Observations on Barometers and Hygrometers, Memoir I. M. ACHARD.

We find, from his introduction, that the delign of this academician is to confute what he conceives to be vulgar errors concerning these instruments. Nothing, he contends, can be more false than the common notion, that the elevation of the mercury in the barometer indicates the weight of the atmosphere; for it is the effect of two causes combined, the weight and the expansibility of the air. If M. ACHARD means only to fay that the mercury in the barometer is affected by the temperature of the air, the discovery is certainly not new: but he expresses himself with so little accuracy, that it is difficult to stetermine what his design really is: - he soon after tells us that the rife of the mercury in the barometer is not a consequence of the gravity of the air, and that this is proved by inclosing the lower part of a barometer in a vessel filled with common air, and hermetically sealed; in which case, though the weight of the air acting on the mercury be always the same, the height of the column in the tube will be liable to the thermometrical variations. This is very true, but it is nothing to the purpose; because the instrument, thus confined, is no longer a barometer, but becomes, to all intents and purposes, a thermometer, or rather a manometer.

Change of temperature is not, fays M. ACHARD, the only cause of variation in the elasticity of the air; this fluid being also affected by its combination with water, and with different volatile substances, which it is able to contain in a state of solution; the degree of elasticity thus occasioned is various, according to the nature of the several substances dissolved, the degree of faturation to which the folution is carried, and the temperature to which it is exposed. In order to prove this, M. ACHARD confined the lower part of a barometer in a jac full of air, which, by means of the fixed caustic alkali, was rendered as dry as possible: the jar was closed with a ground stopper, to which was suspended a small thin glass bubble full of water, and hermetically fealed. He then hook the apparatus, till, by striking against its sides, the glass bubble was broken; when he observed that, while the water thus dispersed was absorbed by the air, the mercury role in the barometer. Hence he concludes that, ceteris paribus, the air becomes more expansible in proportion to the number of aqueous particles with which it is combined. By exposing air of different degrees of dryness to various degrees of temperature, he found that the dilatation by heat, of air perfectly dry, corresponded exactly with that of mercury in Reaumur's thermometer: but that the ex-**DSULION**

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pansion of air impregnated with water is much more rapid in

its progress.

All this may be very true: but it is no new discovery: it has long been known that all folvents are increased in bulk by the matter which they hold in folution; and, that a given quantity of air, when impregnated with aqueous particles, will be augmented in volume, none, we believe, will dispute. The grand questions in meteorology are concerning the proportion which obtains between the augmentation of volume and that of mass; or in other words, whether air becomes specifically lighter when thus impregnated, and whether the power of air, as a folvent of water, be increased by its density. This has been supposed, and, in our opinion, with great probability: but it has not yet been fatisfactorily proved by experiments: for. could this he done, we do not think that any valid objection could be offered against that theory of evaporation, which suppoles a chemical folution of water in the atmosphere. The academician adopts this theory, but attributes the variations of this folvent power of the air folely to changes of temperature; which, as the only cause, does not appear sufficient to explain, in a fatisfactory manner, the phenomena which occur. Be this as it may, it is very certain that our author's observations are not new, nor do they prove the thefis with which he fet out: because the immediate effect of the dilatation of the confined air on the furface of the mercury must be pressure; and, with respect to the barometer when exposed to the atmosphere, it is well known that the elatticity of the air is in direct proportion to its denfity, and that, by its expansibility, it cannot act on the mercury, unless it be compressed by the weight of the superincumbent atmosphere.

Equally unimportant are M. ACHARD's observations on the hygrometer; he attempts to shew, what has long been known, that it is affected not by the water which the air contains in a state of solution, but only by that which the atmosphere cannot

dissolve, and which is separated from it.

Mem. 11. Observations on Terrestrial Electricity. By the same.

Having observed that the pith balls of an electrometer, communicating with an insulated pointed conductor, displayed signs of electricity when the sky was perfectly serene and without a cloud, and that their electricity seemed to increase when he touched the outside of the insulated glass, in which they were suspended, M. ACHARD very shrewdly concludes that they derived this electricity, not by means of the pointed conductor from the air, but from the earth. He informs us that this observation would enable him to explain many phenomena, for which

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which no cause has ever hitherto been affigned: but that want of time, (a complaint which this good gentleman makes in all his memoirs,) prevents his entering on a subject so extensive: he therefore confines, for the present, the application of his curious theory of terrestrial electricity to elucidate the rise of

vapour, and the fall of dew.

M. ACHARD has here fallen into an error, not uncommon among those who are much straitened for time; he has made more haste than good speed. If, instead of being in such a hurry to put pen to paper, he had bestowed a few minutes in attending to the circumstances which he has recorded, he would have feen that his hypothesis, however ingenious, hall one trifling fault; that of being contrary to fact; and thus would have faved himself the trouble of writing this memoir. He fays that, when the balls appeared electric, sparks might be drawn from the wire, by which they were connected with the conductor; and that, when this connection was removed, they were not at all affected on his touching the glass in which they hung. Hence it is plain that the electricity was conveyed by means of the conductor, to the internal furface of the glass: but, this being infulated, the charge was increased by any conducting substance coming in contact with the outside.

Mem. III. On a very advantageous Method of making Ceruje. By the same.

The method here recommended is to triturate litharge with a folution of common falt. Of the advantages resulting from this process we cannot presume to judge; as we have not had an opportunity of seeing the experiment tried. M. Achard says that it saves much time, labour, and expence: but we have seen so many instances of this gentleman's inaccuracy, that we cannot yield implicit saith to his affersions.

Mem. IV. On Absorption. By M. WALTER.

In our Review for June 1787, the reader will find an account of Mr. Cruikshank's Anatomy of the Absorbing Vessels, against which this memoir is levelled. M. WALTER combats the opinion that all the parts of the living body are impervious, except by vessels, and that transudation takes place only after death. He contends that, though the lymphatics be really absorbing vessels, they do not exercise this function exclusively, except in the absorption of the milk in the breasts of women; that, wherever there is a cellular substance, absorption is performed by the veins and lymphathics jointly: but that, in all other parts of the body, whether internal or external, it is effected by the veins alone.

In the course of this memoir, M. WALTER informs us of his having had an opportunity, similar to that which occurred to Ruysts, of diffecting the body mulieris statim post coitum interfestes. The appearances were similar to those described by that anatomist; invenit enim tubes et ovaria sanguine distente, illurum subries bac sortiter amplexes, et tubas semine masculine replates.

Mem. V. On the Rupture of Banks. By M. SILBERSCHLAG.

After a declamatory description of the dreadful calamities occasioned by these accidents, this academician considers those inundations of the Rhine, which have been caused by the ice accumulating in the river and choaking up the channel. The remedy, which he proposes, is to make embrasures, or openings, in the banks, that the water, when at a certain height, may be drained off in those low lands where it will do the least mischies, and which it may sertilize by the mud that it deposites.

Mom. VI. A Theory of the Inclination and Declination of the Magnetic Needle. By M. J. E. SILBERSCHLAG.

This memoir is written in Latin, and in a most pompous style, which is ill suited to the modest investigator of the secrets of nature. M. SILBERSCHLAG fays he prefers this language, because his philosophical terms cannot, without ambiguity, be expressed or explained in any other. He accounts for the phenomena of the magnet by the hypothesis of certain immaterial elements, or primordial powers, or substances, which have an underived efficacy in themselves. These act, not by mechanical impulse, but by a communication of nifus, and thus are the causes of all changes in the external state of the adjacent substances: for the visible world is nothing more than the mere phenomena of these elements. To our author we must suppose that these terms are of singular utility; for he is continually enlarging with rapture on the important discoveries to which they lead him; but we must lament that the relation of our minds to the universe is such, that to us they suggest no distinct idea, that his demonstrations leave us unconvinced, and that, after perufing all which he has written concerning the nifes and renifes, and concerning the anterior, posterior, and intermediate nitus, all concurring in one point, we do not think the matter fully explained; nor can we exclaim with him, ' En babemus stellam polarem magnetis expositem, qualem babere cupimus.

To account for the inclination and declination of the needle, M. Silberschlag supposed a spherical magnet within the carth,

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earth, and told us that we must descend into the abyss, as Æneas did into Avernus. He did not eyen allow us time to prepare for the journey; for he added, Nella doing mora, Jala-bamur ergo ad inferos, non quidem aureo isto rame Dardanii berein, sed virga trigonometrica instructi. Agedum! Thus, burried away, we followed our philosophical fibyl (we beg our author's pardon for comparing him to an old woman,) to the regions below; and we found that the distance of the North pole of this subterraneous magnet from that part of the earth's surface under the thirtieth parallel of latitude, where the inclination is 65°, is 0,622 of the radius of our-globe. It was dreadfully dark in these infernal regions. M. SILBERSCHLAG himself: feemed disconcerted; he said that, if our farthing candle went? out, he knew not how he should get a fingle spark of light ; and complained of having been deceived by fome people, who had affured him that there was a central fun in the middle of the earth*. We suppose, however, that he had taken care to provide himself with a tinder-box; for, when we expressed our anxiety left we should never be able to find our way back to our garrets, and pleaded the well known authority of Virgil's sibyl as an excuse for our apprehensions, he bad us dismiss our sears, and mind our business; saying, Nabis quidem nepe descensus. nostri Averni, neve revocatio gradus et evasio superas ad auras, multum molestiæ facessu : sed visere globum ingentem magneticum, ejusaemque diametrum, distantiam, et situm emetiri, bos opus, bic. labor! We were therefore obliged to attend him during his operations; the refult of which we shall communicate to our readers, expressed in decimal parts of the earth's radius; but it is proper previously to observe that, though the centre of gravity of this magnetic sphere must be supposed to correspond with that of the earth, its magnetic centre does not hence the magnetic meridian and equator do not coincide with the circles of this name on the surface of the globe. The distance of the north pole of this subterraneous magnet from the centre. of the earth, M. SILBERSCHLAG found to be 0,500, the lengthof its axis 0,024, and the distance of the magnetic centre from that of our earth 0,2056. The reader may be assured that these measures are as accurate as any that can be taken in the dark.

[•] Lest our readers should think we exaggerate M. Silberschlag's sears, we will give them his own words: Dolendi profecto sumus, quod in tanta seralis abyssus caligine oberrantes, wix unam alteranque datorum paucissimorum scintillulam evocare nobis licent, ad quam facem paene extinctiam iterum accendere possumus, Hen l. quam falluntur, qui in meditullio terræ lumen ceu solem centralem nobis spoponderunt, ubi nox intempessa per totum Erebum dominatur.

Tempires of the Royal Academy of Sciences, Ge. of Berlin.

. VII. Chemical Inquiries concerning the Adamantine By M. KLAPROTH.

first specimens of this stone, known in Europe, were from China and Bengal, and were deposited in the on of Sir Charles Francis Greville. It acquired its om its extreme hardness; on which account the Chipidaries make use of it, when pulverized, instead of dialuft. According to M. Le Sage, it is granite, comf felt-spar, black school, and quartz : that which comes lengal is whiter and of a more distinct sparry texture e Chinese, which is grey, and generally in the form of nal prisms, about an inch in length, and three quarters ich in thickness. Its fragments are opake, except when e reduced to very thin lamellæ: it is generally furrounda ceating of filver mica, the particles of which adhere ofely to the stone, and are intermixed with red selt-spar. ains iron disseminated throughout its substance in the f crystallized grains, which, when the spar is reduced to , are eafily separated from it by the magnet. Its speavity was found to be 3710. After being kept an hour I heat, it had lost 3' of its weight, and was consider-hiter than before. On analyzing 300 grains of this M KLAPROTH obtained 60 grains of iron, and 141 of alumine, or aluminous earth; the remainder was a

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greenish hue. This kind is generally discovered in compact masses, lying between strata of a micaceous schist, which is found to be decompounded. In the internal parts of this stone, it is not uncommon to meet with veins of a peculiar yellow metallic earth.

The Pechblend is foluble in the nitric and in the nitro-muriatic acids, partially so in the muriatic, but not at all in the sulphuric. From these solutions, the unsaturated ferruginous prussiat of potash, or phlogisticated alkali, precipitates the metallic substance, which then resembles Kermes mineral in colour. This, when it does not unite in slakes, but is uniformly diffused in the solution, may be considered as one of the most distinguishing characters of the Pechblend; another is, that the precipitates, effected by the volatile and fixed alkalies, are yellow; the fixed caustic alkalies giving it a lemon colour, the aërated a light yellow. This yellow oxyd, or calx, cannot be sufed with alkalies.

As this fossil cannot be classed either among the zinc or iron ores, and is very different from tungstein, M. Klaproth proposes to give to it the appellation of *Uranium*; and he distributes it into the following species:

1. Uranium fulphuratum. (a) Dark gray, often exhibiting traces of Galena. (b) Black, resembling pit-coal.

2. Uranium Ochraceum. Brimstone colour, lemon colour, deep yellow, reddish brown.

3. Uranium Spathosum. (a) Tinged with green by copper. (b) Yellow. This is the green mica or chalcolithe.

Mem. IX. Extracts from the Meteorological Journals kept at Berlin, during the Year 1787. By M. De BEGUELIN.

MATHEMATICS.

Mem. I. On Euclid's Manner of demonstrating the Properties of Parallel Lines. By M. DE CASTILLON.

This memoir may be considered as a panegyric on Euclid. The author severely reprehends the moderns for preserring algebra to geometry, and the analytic to the synthetic method. He maintains that the antients had also their analytic method, which they applied to the solution of problems; the only circumstance, he says, in which algebra is of use. In support of this affertion, he appeals to the work of Apollonius, de Sectione rationis, and to Pappus; particularly to the presace with which this writer introduces the seventh book of his collections. M. DE CASTILLON then enters on a desence of Euclid's definition of parallel lines, and of the theorems relative to them. To the majority even of mathematicians, this subject will not be very interesting; and we cannot help thinking that, by undex-valuing

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valuing algebra, the writer falls into an extreme, the opposite of that which he reprehends in the moderns: for though we allow that, in communicating and demonstrating truths to others, the synthetic method is far the most eligible, yearshe analytic is much more convenient and advantageous to the mathematician himself, in his pursuit of farther discoveries.

Mem. II. Concerning the secular variations of Herschel's planet, octasioned by the action of supiter and Saturn, together with the periodical variations of its motion, depending on its heliocentric distances from these planets. By M. Du VAI LE ROI.

This paper was presented to the academy by M. De le Grange; who observes that it may be considered as a supplement to his memoirs, published in 1782 and 1784, which contained an application of the theory of the secular and periodical variations to the principal planets. As this memoir consists almost entirely of differential equations, it does not admit of any abstract. We shall only mention that the author adopts M. De La Grange's hypothesis, that the densities of the planets are reciprocally as their distances from the sun. According to this rule, after estimating the diameter of the new planet, expressed in parts of that of our globe, to be 4,43763, he calculated its mass to be to that of the earth, as 4,57965 to unity.

Mem. III. Observations on the Transit of Mercury over the Sun, on the 4th of May 1784. By M. Beitler.

This observation was made at the Academical Observatory at Mittau in Courland, the difference of meridians between which and Paris M. Beitler determines to be 1^h 25′ 32″,5, and the latitude 56° 39′ 6″,5.

Hence the longitude of the descending node of mercury is calculated for Paris to be - 7° 15° 48′ 10″,9

In M. De la Lande's tables, it is computed at - 7 15 48 30

Difference 19",1

Mem. 1V. Essay on the true elliptic and parabolic Herary Metion of the Planets and Comets. By the same.

M. BRITLER here gives a particular account of the method by which, in the preceding memoir, he had calculated the horary motion of Mercury. For this purpose, he made use of the general theorem, which Euler has laid down in his Institutiones Calculi Differentialis, Parte Posteriori, Cap. III. It is here illustrated by several examples.

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Mem. V. General Observations on the Squation and Distribution of the Orbits of the several Planets and Comets, bitherto discovered and ascertained. By M. Bods.

The object of this memoir is to point out the circumstances of analogy between the orbits of the comets and those of the planets: the observations for this purpose are deduced from the phenomena of the seventy-two comets, the orbits of which have been ascertained, and of which a table is added to this article.

It is observed, first, that most of the comets have their perihelia nearly in the same region of the heavens with those of the planets: those of the latter are fituated between the second degree of Pisces and the seventeenth of Virgo: of the comets his therto discovered, 46 have their perihelia nearly within the same limits, or between Aquarius and Virgo. This analogy induces M. Bode to think that the greater number of comets having their perihelia in the northern figns is not a fortuitous circumstance, owing to our accidental advantages for observing It is remarkable, he tells us, that near each pole of the fun only one comet has its perihelion; whereas a greater number approach nearest to this luminary in the figns of Gemini and Scorpio, which are opposite to the nodes of its equator. Hence he is tempted to conclude that the polition of the folar axis has some influence with respect to the approximation of the comets, and that this is most frequently made in a perpendicular to it. We leave these conjectures to the judgment of our readers; to us they appear highly vague and uncertain z as, of the comets which we do know, 26 form an exception to the former; and, if the latter were just, how must we account for the two perihelia which are near the poles of the fun? beside, on looking into the table, we find that, of the feventy-two peribelia, 15 fall in Leo and Aquarius, and are therefore not far from the folar axis, 7 in Pisces and Virgo, and, though there be 15 in Gemini and Scorpio, there are not less than 16 in Cancer and Capricorn:—but how can we pretend to form general conclusions from a very small majority of the few phenomena which we know, when it is highly probable that there are comets yet undiscovered, and which, like many of those already known, may invalidate our conjectures?

Another circumftance adduced, is the distance of the comets from the sun in their perihelia. Of the 72 which have been observed, 15 pass between the Sun and Mercury, 32 between the orbits of Mercury and Venus, 13 between Venus and the earth, and 12 at a still greater distance. That the greatest number of the known comets should have been seen between

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the orbits of Mercury and Venus, M. Bode afcribes to their being then in the most favourable aspect for observation; for he seems inclined to adopt M. Lambert's hypothesis, that the number of comets increases as the squares of the distances of their perihelia from the sun.

A third observation is that 45 comets have their ascending nodes between the nineteenth degrees of Pifces and Virgo. Forty comets are in their perihelia nearer to their ascending than to their descending nodes: two pass the sun in their nodes; and thirty are nearer to their descending nodes. are also reminded that the orbits of most of the comets form much greater angles, than those of the planets, with the ecliptic. Another particular mentioned is, that the motion of 38 comets is direct, and of 24 retrograde, with respect to that of the planets; this variety, our author observes, confutes the hypothesis of Descartes, by whom the Sun was supposed to be in the centre of a vortex of ætherial matter. We shall not trouble our readers with the conjectures which M. Bode founds on these premises; because, in most of them, he has, in his own tables, nearly as many phenomena against him, as he can adduce in his fayour.

Mem. V. Examination of an Analytical Paradex. By M. TREMBLEY.

Among the various methods of refolving differential equations by approximation, that of successive substitution appears the most obvious: but it has often been observed that this method introduces arcs of a circle into the integral, which it ought not to contain. Hence feveral mathematicians, and particularly M. De La Grange and M. De La Place have endervoured to rectify this mode, which they effected by varying the arbitrary constant quantities. M. TREMBLEY thought it might be a useful inquiry to examine the apparently faulty method more closely, and to see whether a legitimate solution might not be obtained by it. Accordingly, he found that this method appears to produce circular arcs, because it gives the fines and cofines, contained in the integral, under the form of feries; and indeed this form necessarily results from the method itself: but, as these series are regular and may be summed up, they lead us directly to imaginary exponentials, and therefore to the true integrals, without needing any rectification. M. TREMBLEY proves by the folution of feveral problems, taken from the memoirs of the mathematicians already mentioned.

Mem.VI. Remarks on the Method of Approximation in the lategration of differential Equations. By the lame.

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Memoirs of the Royal Academy of Sciences, &c. of Berlin. 493 Mem. VII. Theory of Solids bounded by Plane Surfaces. By M. L'HUILLIER.

Mem. VIII. An elementary and direct Method of calculating Logarithms. By M. Burja.

M. Burja confiders all the absolute numbers as powers of the base, which, in Briggs's tables, is 10, and each logarithm as an exponent, which indicates the power to which the base must be raised in order to give the absolute number corresponding with it.

. . SPECULATIVE PHILOSOPHY.

Mom. I. Comparative Reflections on the Pleasures and Pains of Life, with respect to their Number, their Frequency, and their Variety. By M. DE BEGUELIN.

In the memoirs of this academy for the year 1766, M. Merian published an essay on the comparative duration and intensity of pleasure and pain*, in which he made the balance preponderate on the side of pain in both these respects. This decision gave occasion to the memoir before us; which M. De Beourers introduces with observing that M. Merian ought to have pointed out in what manner the melancholy result of his inquiry can be reconciled with the consolatory persuasion that we owe our existence to a Being of infinite goodness, who certainly could not intend that the sum of evil should be greater than that of good to his creatures; he ought to have shewn that, notwithstanding this preponderance of pain, Providence designs for us, and, when we are wise enough to accept of is, really confers on us, a much greater sum of good than of evil, of agreeable than of diagreeable sensations.

It is justly observed by M. De Bequelin that neither great pleasures, nor great pains, constitute the habitual state of man, but are very thinly sown in the path of human life. How many individuals are there who have never experienced either! The habitual state of man is that of simple well-being; which; when a little heightened, becomes pleasure, and, when, a little abated, is nullity of sensation, or the middle term of the scale, of which pleasing sensations occupy the one, and painful sensations the other, side. By nullity of sensation, however, the academician does not mean a state of perfect indifference; for this would be incompatible with the nature of man. From a state of pain, whatever be its degree, all wish to be delivered; yet it is observable that, among a hundred thousand persons, scarcely one can be found who rushes out of life in order to get rid of his sufferings; and, in this case, it is generally

^{*} See Review, vol. xliv. page 547.

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doubted whether he had at that moment the entire use of his reason:—whence M. DE BEGUELIN concludes that even the most painful circumstances are not unaccompanied with some

perceptions of good.

It is because well-being is the habitual state of man, that pleasures appear to us less lively than pains of equal intensity; and that the durations of pleasure, and of pain, though equal with respect to absolute time, seem very unequal when compared. We consider as pleasure, only that degree of good which is perceptibly greater than our habitual state of well-being; whereas we include under the appellation of pain, every state, in which our habitual well-being loses any thing of its intensity.

After these preliminary observations, the ingenious author mentions two questions which, though difficult to answer with precision, are highly interesting. In the common course, and among the feveral classes, of human life, is the number of pains greater or less than that of pleasures, supposing the intensity of each to be nearly equal? Of the class of pains, and that of pleasures, which contains the greater number of genera and species? Without presuming to decide on these questions, the author believes that, if they could be accurately investigated, the issue of both would be on the side of pleasure; especially if they were confined to those pleasures and pains which we derive from nature. In support of this opinion, he observes that the former are friendly, and the latter inimical, to the physical constitution of sentient beings; and this leads him, (we think, juffly,) to suppose that infinite goodness has frewed the path of life with a much greater number of pleasures than of pains, and has given us a much greater diversity of the former than of the latter. The supreme Being has made us susceptible of several different sensations at the same time; which, by their heterogeneity, frequently weaken the continued impression of pain. Time and employment are known to heal the deepest wounds of affliction; and even the most wretched find relief from converting on the circumstances of their distress. In short, it is a constant law of nature, which is nothing more than the primitive regulation of the Creator, that there should be an unremitting tendency to the prefervation of beings in general, and to repair whatever injuries they may receive from foreign causes: but can this law be said to act with respect to mankind, if the number of their pains exceed that of their pleasures?

In order to fet this argument in a ffronger light, M. Dr. Broverse takes a more particular view of those pleasing fen-

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sations which enter into the habitual state of most men: these arise from a consciousness of existence,—the enjoyment, if not of perfect, yet of tolerable, health,—the alternate succession of action and rest,—the gratification of the appetites of nature, curiofity,—the attachments prompted by interest,—the relations and affections of focial life,—the defire of acquiring and of communicating knowlege,-a variety of occupations and employments, whether of business or of amusement, which exercise and improve the faculties both of body and mind, together with a confcioulness of difficulties overcome, and of duties performed, and lastly, hope, which anticipates future enjoyment. All these sources of pleasure are intimately connected with our nature, and are common to the greatest part of mankind in every period and condition of life. Qur author has not mentioned factitious enjoyments, because, with these he must have contrasted factitious privations, which probably exceed them in number; nor would it be fair to place that good or that evil, which derives its existence solely from the irregularity of the imagination, in the same class with the pleafures and pains allotted to us by the condition of our nature.

"Perhaps it may be alked, if our pleasures be really more numerous than our pains, why are there so few who would be willing to recommence the career of life through which they have already passed? The academician answers this objection, by observing that the activity of the human mind is such as to require a continual fuccession of new ideas; and that nature has implanted in us a constant tendency to new states of being each differing from the preceding, and which gradually lead to that perfection, which finite Beings cannot attain at once. We are formed, not for a stationary condition, not to recommence the circumstances through which we have already passed. but to be constantly advancing in our career toward new and higher modes of existence. Another cause is, that the condition supposed, in the notion of recommencing our life, is that all the circumstances, through which we must pass, are ale ready known to us. Hence neither curiofity is interested, nor hope excited: no new objects can be attained; nor have we the liberty of preventing or of avoiding the pains through which we know that we mult pals: hence the experience, the knowlege, and the abilities, which we have acquired, would be lost dn'us; and we could have no other prospect than that of being at the end of our fecond existence, exactly at the same point from which we had fet out. Remove this condition; and most menwould be glad, for the take of avoiding death, to recommence a life equally, or even less advantageous in point of happiness, that

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that which they have experienced. From this number our author does not except those pretended philosophers, who limit existence to the present state; who are continually complaining of the miferies of life, and yet have not the courage to put an end to it. - As to those whom reason and religion inspire with a well-founded hope of a future existence, and of a continued progress toward perfection, though they have as lively a sense as others of the pleasures of this life, which they consider as a natural preparation for a future state, they would never be defirous to recommence their career; which, whatever pleasures it might afford, would only retard their advancement toward that perfect state, for which they know they are destined,

Mem. II. Reflections on the State of Nature. By M. An-CILLON.

This memoir is intended to refute Rousseau's representation of the original state of mankind: but it is a dry and prolix discussion of a trite subject, and is very deficient both in perfpicuity and elegance.

Mem. III. Inquiry into Human Liberty. By M. DE CASTILLON.

The author of this inquiry is of opinion that human liberty is one of those subjects concerning which philosophers ought never to have published their doubts; because, by denying its existence, much may be lost, and nothing can be gained: but when the discussion has been started, the same reasons, which should have prevented it, render it prudent to make the question as clear and perspicuous as possible. Of the former of these observations we cannot approve; and though we might have expected it from an orthodox divine, or a courtly politician, we are aftonished to meet with it in the writings of a philoso-Free and impartial inquiry is the only way that leads to the discovery of truth; which may indeed sometimes thwart the deligns of princes and priefts: but, to suppose it prejudicial to the virtue and happiness of mankind, is to question the wifdom and goodness of Providence. It has always been found that scepticism sourishes most, when compelled to shrink from the public eye; for, when openly professed, its triumph can feldom be of great extent, or of long duration; it mult foon give way to the dictates of reason and common sense. Metaphylical opinions, however, whether in philosophy or religion, are merely speculative; they affect not the moral conduct of mankind; and most of the ablest advocates for necessity are not less respectable for their regard to virtue, both in prineiple and practice, than the most strenuous affertors of human liberty. : .,

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M. DE CASTILLON thinks that the best way of removing the difficulties attending this question, is to give a clear and distinct determination of the ideas which ought to be connected with the term Liberty. After observing that liberty supposes the faculty of chusing, he divides it, first, into absolute and relative, and then into active and passive. A man, for instance, who is perfectly indifferent whether he be virtuous or vicious, and is free from all refraint, has the active faculty of chusing, or, perhaps, the faculty of actually chusing, either moral good or evil: but endur him with the love or virtue, and he will no longer have the active, but only the passive, faculty of chufing; that is, he will be prevented from exercifing this faculty, though he be not deprived of it. This definition is a sufficient proof that the whole is a dispute rather concerning words than things, and that the chief cause of difference between the opposite parties arises from their using different words to express the same ideas, and expressing different ideas by the fame terms; for what our author calls the paffive faculty of chufing is not very distant from what some underitand by necessity. M. DE CASTILLON, however, does not keep this diffinction in view in his furvey of moral liberty, in defence of which he adduces the common and popular arguments; among the objects of choice, he includes the motives by which we are, or may be, determined; fo that, however powerful may be the motives to any given action, we have fill the active faculty of chusing and adopting weaker motives in opposition to them, or even of acting without any motive. Nor is this liberty of indifference, we are told, contrary to the fystem of Leibnitz; for, in this case, the faculty of chusing, and the opportunity of exerting it, conflitute the fufficient reafor the action of the faculties, and this cannot act without making a choice; so that to say I will, because I will, is only afferting I will, because I have the faculty of willing. cannot help thinking that there is some inconsistency in our author's representing the liberty of indifference as an active faculty of chusing to act contrary to motives, when he had before afferted that habits, either of virtue or of vice, deprive man of the active, and leave him only the passive, faculty of chusing. On the whole, we cannot praise this memoir as a very fatisfactory discussion of the subject. One of the best that we have ever seen, is a differtation by the Rev. Dr. Maclaine of the Hague, to which a medal was awarded by Teyler's Theological Society, and of which the reader will find an account in the Appendix to the seventieth volume of our Review.

Mem. IV. An Elementary Treatise on Morals. By M. FORMEY.

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worthy fecretary, after giving us a great deal of fmall out democracy, aristocracy, and despotism, and enterus with various anecdotes of monkeys, ourang-outangs, ld beaft of Gevaudan, nobles, kings, and empresses, es that he has wandered a little from his subject : but he akes other excursions not less extensive than the first, and th concludes that an arbitrary and unlimited monarchy is the m of government. As this conclusion is not a legitimate on from the author's premises, the reason of it is ob--fuch is the government of Prussia. We are really o fee one, whose age and talents we were disposed to vethus degrade himself. Of England, he fays, that its are despised, only because they have not legions at combut that fince the accession of the bouse of Hanover, hality of their parliaments has enabled them to reign. ink M. Formey would have consulted his reputation, if, of committing this strange heterogeneous medley to the he had attended to the advice of Horace:

Solve senescentem mature sanus equum, ne Pecces ad extremum risendus, et ilia ducat.

n. V. On the Reality and Ideality of the Objects of our ege. By M. Selle.

e the objects, which we confider as really existing, in real objective existence, independent of our mode of pertables. This conflicts this M. Setter much appear we had not expected among the memoirs of an academy of sciences. Like most other assemblages of the same kind, it is a miscellarly with respect to quality as well as to matter; consisting of good, bad, and indifferent stories, which have very little connection with each other. Among instances of the ignorance or inattention of authors, the collector mentions Racine's geographical error in the following passage:

Doutez vous que l'Euxin ne me porte en deux jours Aux lieux ou le Danube y vois fixir sen cours?

MITHRIDATE, Acte I. Sc. 1.

Nor did Boileau display greater knowlege of astronomy, when he described a philosopher making use of an astrolate, in order to determine whether the sun revolves on its axis. That the celebrated Salmasius, in a work printed at Leyden, represented our Saviour as born at Jerusalem, must be ascribed to inattention rather than to ignorance.

A translation of Cæsar's Commentaries by Lewis XIV. was published in 1651, on which account this monarch is ranked among the learned; the justice of his claim may be determined by his asking Cardinal Fleury, after hearing the word quemadmodum repeated several times in a motet which was performed before him, who this Prince Quemadmodum was?

We are told that Derflinger, a celebrated German general, feeing the word raptim at the bottom of a military report, examined all the maps which he could collect, in order to find where Raptim was fituated; and that, being informed that the march of the army was impeded by a defile, he gave orders that the defile should be put to the sword. This, and some other stories here repeated, smell rather too strongly of Joe Miller.

A multitude of blundering translations are here recorded, arising from the want of a complete knowlege either of the language or of the subject of the original: but it would be difficult to give our readers an idea of these errors; which, though sufficiently ridiculous as they are here told, would lose all their humour by being related in another language: beside, nothing cloys so soon as a series of unconnected stories.

Mem. III. On the third Year of the Reight of Frederic William II. By Count HERTZBERG.

We cannot help finiling at the various means by which courtly parasites endeavour to recommend themselves to their governors. The worthy secretary of the academy, we have seen, has taken the direct road; and, without giving himself any trouble concerning the opinions of mankind, has holdly afferted a proposition, which, to a royal ear must be peculiarly M m 2 grateful.

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at an arbitrary unlimited monarchy is the best form of Count HERTZBERG feems to have a greater reis reputation; and, not daring to infult mankind pable an abfurdity, labours to prove that the Prufchy is not arbitrary. This worthy statesman, howpiece of fophistry very common among courtiers, two things which, in the confideration of this ught to be kept entirely distinct; the constitution of it, and the actual administration of it. The slightest rce with political history will afford sufficient proof of these may be very good, while the other may be do not mean to charge the King of Pruffia with yrant, nor to contradict the many flattering compliich are paid to him by the Count: but when we that the legislative and executive powers centre in the and are exercifed by him alone, we can have no other that Profile is an arbitrary unlimited monarchy. king may divide and delegate these powers among inrts and officers, is nothing to the purpole; because regulations, however wife and good, he may revoke We will allow that, under a good prince, who buliness, and is well ferved, the evils resulting from ry form of government will be greatly diminished: tot in the power even of the best monarch to prevent live and tyrannical conduct of those to whom he is delegate his authority. It may be supposed that,

Dumbar's View of the Constitution of America, &c. 501

Mem. IV. On the fourth Year of the Reign of Frederic Wil-

liam II. By the same.

More anecdotes of the king, not less important than those of the preceding year, interspersed with proper notes of admiration! To these is added a declamation in favour of hereditary nobility, which we greatly praise for its brevity.

Mem. V. On Revolutions, External, Internal, and Religious.

By the same.

Count HERTZBERG may say to the King of Prussia, as a more elegant slatterer of antiquity did to his patron, A te principium, tibi desinet; for this superficial declamation on revolutions is intended only to introduce an affertion, (which, by the way, is totally void of proof,) that the Kings of Prussia, and especially the present, have contributed more than any other monarchs, to preserve the general tranquillity of Europe. On this head we must suspend our opinion, till we see the result of his majesty's generous efforts to give tranquillity to Poland.

Mem. VI. On the History of Brandenburg during the Middle Ages, and the Use of Coins and Medals in illustrating it. By M. MORHSEN.

Amid the scarcity of good materials for composing a history of Brandenburg, during the dark ages, this academician recommends an attention to the coins of those times, and gives some directions for distinguishing them.

Such are the contents of this volume, which do not give us very high ideas of the academy of Berlin in its present state. The poverty of its publications may admit of some excuse; for where little is performed, much cannot be communicated: but some of the physical memoirs fill us with assonishment. When we perused the papers by M. SILBERSCHLAG and M. ACHARD, we were at a loss to comprehend how it could happen that a society of men, who call themselves philosophers, could hear these articles read, without noticing their palpable absurdity, and could afterward suffer them to disgrace the publications of the academy. From this and other circumstances in the volume before us, we were inclined to suspect that many of these gentlemen belonged to the sect of the Gnathonics.

ART. II. De Oude en Nieuwe Conflitutie, &c. i.e. A View of the Old and New Conflitution of the United States of America. By GERHARD DUMBAR, LL. D. Member of the Philosophical Society at Utrecht. Vol. I. 8vo. 260 pages. Amsterdam. 1793.

A MID the variety of political subjects, to which the circumstances of the present times have called the attention of M m ?

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Dumbar's View of the Old and New Constitution

d; we wonder that the merits of the government of the States of America have not been more accurately difv European writers. It was this republic which exhie first instance, in the present century, of what could led by a people who were refolved to be free; and who, r fucces, encouraged others to attempt to thake off the y which they felt themicives appreffed; but they en-Ivantages of which the nations of Europe were deflitute. had long been accustomed to live under a popular gont, and had been educated amid the enjoyment of both civil and political; to them, therefore, liberty ot a stranger known only by distant report, with whole they were not sufficiently acquainted to diffinguish her re impostor licentiousness, that to often allumes her name unterfeits her pretensions. Their manners were not ed by the contagious example of those licentious courts, confider religion only as a political machine to keep the in subjection, and force on them an uniform profession , while government itself may violate every obligation ality. The jealoufy and ambition of princes, instead of ng against the Americans, was, by a concurrence of stances, directed against the power with which they were



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were not fettered by that intimate political connection with foreign princes, which is always dangerous to the independence of republics. An attentive view, fays our author, of the history of the American revolution will point out the causes why that of France has not been attended with more falutary consequences. This consideration led him to take a survey of the circumstances of the American proceedings, long before the present alliance among the powers of Europe had taken

place in order to crush the French republic.

The volume before us is employed in a very impartial review of what Dr. Dumbar calls the old constitution of the American' states; by which he means the thirteen articles of confederation, settled in congress on the 17th of November 1777. This survey is introduced by a concise account of the rise of the war, and of the events preceding the formation of the union: which is followed by a translation of the articles of confederation. In his remarks on them, Dr. Dumbar derives his information from the debates of congress, and from the speeches and writings of some characters of America, distinguished for political wissom and integrity; among these, General Washington and Dr. Franklin justly claim the pre-

The chief faults in these articles had their source in that jealousy of power, which generally prevails among a people who have shaken off what they conceived to be an oppressive yoke, and have successfully afferted their liberties. long been accustomed to see authority and oppression united, they find it difficult to distinguish two ideas which they have. acquired a habit of affociating. They confess the necessity of laws to restrain licentiousness, as well as to regulate the proceedings of government: but they are apt to look with aversion on those who are appointed to execute them, as men who wish to elevate themselves above the level of their sellow-citizens, and to acquire a power independent of them. They forget that, in a republic, the magistrate, of whom they are thus suspicious, holds his power only for a short period; that when this is expired, he must retire to the station of a private citizen; and, if he has laid any burthen on the community, must afterward bear his portion of it. It must however be acknowleded that fome degree of this jealoufy is not more natural to republicans, than it is necessary to prevent their government from degenerating into an aristocracy: but when it is carried so far as to deprive the executive power of that vigour which is requifite to enforce the laws, and to maintain the constitution, it is pregnant with ruin to those liberties which it professes to guard.

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The grand vice of the American union was that which has generally attended federate governments, the want of a sufficient fanction to its laws, or of power to compel the feveral members of it to comply with the conditions under which they were united. In order to shew the evil consequences of this fault, our author enters into a concise but judicious historical view of its effects in other inftances of federal union. In this light he justly considers the feudal monarchies, in which the king, or liege lord, was little more than the prefident of a confederacy of petty fovereigns, each of whom had a supreme authority within his own territory; hence they were trequently engaged in wars, not only with each other, but also with their king, who had no other means of reddeing them to obedience, than the precarious expedients of violence, in which it was impossible always to command success: hence the kingdoms of Europe were at that time continually involved in intestine and civil wars. The effects of this vice are also traced in a survey of the Amphychionic and Achaian leagues of antient Greece, and in an account of the Germanic body; which the Doctor justly observes would long fince have been dissolved, had it not been for the vast power and influence which the Emperors of the House of Austria derive from their hereditary territories.— The Helveric league, though often mentioned as an instance of the permanence of federal states, is, in Dr. Dumbar's opinion, equally faulty. The Cantons, he observes, have no common treasury, no common army, even in time of war, no common court of justice, nor any one character of federal government: they are kept together by the particular circumstances of their fituation; by the consciouiness which each has of its weakness as an individual state; by the dread of powerful neighbours, to one of whom they were once enflaved; and by other confiderations of a fimiliar nature. Whatever good effects this league may have had in common events, it has always been found impotent in differences of greater importance. Disputes concerning religion have three times occasioned the most violent and bloody quarrels, and may be faid to have in fact dissolved their union; for the Romish cantons have since held their assemblies separately from the protestants, and very little business is transacted in the general diet. A view of the United Provinces concludes this chapter, and is introduced by the author to confirm the inference drawn from the whole, that a fovereignty over fovereignties, a legislation to states, which does not extend to the individuals of each state, is not only a political absurdity, but is actually inconsistent with order and the objects of civil government, by its tendency to substitute violence in the place of law, and the destructive compulsion of the sword for the mild said salutary coercion of the magistrace.



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Another fault confidered at large by our author, is that the constitution of each state is not guaranteed by the rest; by which he means not that congress should interfere with the domestic concerns of the states, nor that it should prevent them from effecting, in a peaceable and lawful manner, fuch alterations in their respective conflitutions as the majority of citizens in each may deem necess ry, but only that it should guard against fuch changes as may be produced by violence. The contribution of men and money to the union by quetas affigned for each state; the want of a general and uniform power for regulating commerce, and of a national court of justice; the equality of the imaller with the larger flates with regard to the votes in congress; the power of each to issue paper currency; the too frequent change in the members of congress; and the whole power of legislation for the union being vested in a fingle asfembly; are the principal imperfections which Dr. Dumbar enumerates in what he calls the old constitution of the Ame-The bad consequences of these he shews by a survey of what has fince happened, both with regard to internal differences between the feveral states, and the want of the confidence of foreign powers in a confederation, for the continuance of which there is so little security. On these heads, the author's observations are such as display great candour, as well as political information.

After all, when we confider the circumstances of the confederation here examined, instead of wondering that it has these faults, we are only astonished that it has so few. The articles were drawn up, not in the cool hours of peace and fecurity, when their authors had leifure to examine all the possible consequences of each, and could protract the conclusion till every difficulty could be removed: but they were planned amid the horrors of war, when immediate exertions were necessary against a common enemy; and when it was infinitely more prudent to produce, with all expedition, a plan of union, however imperfect, which might effect an immediate combination of the feveral states, than to consume their time in vain deliberations in fearch of a perfection, of which their actual fituation rendered them incapable. It was probably never intended for a lasting, and certainly not for an unalterable, constitution: but the American legislators acted judiciously in not producing a fecond, before the inconveniences of the first had been fully experienced. These inconveniences were felt, and induced the Americans, in the year 1787, to form a new constitution, in which most of the impersections of the former were avoided a and which, though not entirely perfect, (for what can be fo that is of human invention?) is certainly the best republican 506 Meerman on the happy Effects of Civil Freedom, &c.

government hitherto known. On this head Dr. DUMBAR proposes to offer some remarks in a second volume, of which we

shall take notice as soon as it appears.

Posterity will do justice to the wisdom and honesty of the governors of the United States of America; who did not, like some politicians who could be named, make the acknowleged impersection of all human institutions a pretence for persisting in errors, and for perpetuating abuses,—but were ready to prevent the wishes of their countrymen, by such a voluntary reformation of their constitution, as, without departing from its spirit, might best secure its permanence, and promote the great ends of Government; which was ordained by Providence, not to gratify the ambition of princes, the pride of nobles, and the vanity of ministers, but to promote the wealth, the peace, and the happiness, of the people, from whom its powers are originally derived.

ART. III. De Burgerlyke Vryheid, &c. The happy Effects of Civil Freedom, and the mischievous Consequences of Popular Liberty, considered; especially with respect to the United Provinces. By JOHN MEERMAN, J.U.D. 8vo. pp. 96. Leyden. 1793.

IF the revolution in France ought to afford an important leffon to princes and governors, mankind in general may also derive useful and necessary instruction from contemplating the confusion, the anarchy, and the misery, in which that unhappy nation has fince been involved by the jealoufy and ambition of contending parties, and by the desperate guilt of oppressive and cruel demagogues. If monarchs ought hence to learn the instability of arbitrary power, the ruinous consequences of a fystem of administration supported by corruption, and the little dependence which can be placed on the attachment even of a venal army, when employed to enforce absolute subjection; the people ought also to be taught the necessity of a regular conflitution of government, and of submission to its laws, in order to secure their own happiness as individuals, as well as that of the community. Hence too, they may be convinced that, if they be so fortunate as to possess a tolerable degree of freedom, they will much more consult their own interest by enjoying it with peace and content, than by involving themselves and the community in civil broils; in which they must necessarily risk the loss of the advantages which they posless, and incur the danger of becoming the flaves, either of artful demagogues, who delude them with an empty shew of liberty; or of some foreign tyrant who, under pretence of restoring order, usurps absolute dominion, and perhaps, from what he is pleased to call

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call a difinterested regard to the welfare of the people whom he holds forth as unable to settle their own government, invites his neighbours to assist him in dividing and sharing their terri-

tory.

As it is certainly the part of wisdom to deduce lessons of prudence from the errors of others, we cannot but applaud the design with which M. MEERMAN has penned this address to the Dutch; and, though we cannot agree to all his sentiments concerning political liberty, we sincerely wish his endeavours may be successful in persuading his countrymen to be satisfied with the advantages which they really enjoy, and not to hazard the loss of them in pursuit of others, which the jealousy of their neighbours, and the ambition of those whom, in this case, they must entrust with power, would probably prevent them from

attaining.

The author divides liberty into civil and political. former he justly considers as the grand purpose for which civil fociety was formed, and government instituted. With respect to this he maintains, that the Dutch have advantages which leave them no room for complaint; and that, however imperfect their political constitution may be deemed, they actually enjoy more freedom than the inhabitants of most other This we believe to be truth; and though, with recountries. gard to the security of our rights, we greatly prefer the English constitution, yet we always admired the spirit of moderation with which the government of the Dutch republic is generally administered, and the respect which it commonly pays to the privileges of the people. Some of these are such as even Englishmen might wish to enjoy; for the house of a Dutch burger may with much more propriety be termed his castle, than that of a British subject can be. No sheriff's officer, no exciseman, nor even any interior officer of justice, can pass his threshold without his permission; nor can he on any account be taken out of his habitation, except by the judges themselves, who, for this purpose, must accompany the constables. M. MEERMAN very properly dwells on the equity of the courts of judicature, and on the inviolable security of private property. The taxes, he allows, are heavy: but this must in a great measure be ascribed to the nature of the country, the preservation of which from inundation requires a very great expence:—but he observes that these taxes are imposed,—not by an arbitrary monarch, who demands them to supply the splendid luxury of his court, or who employs them in supporting numerous armies in order to extend his tyrannic sway; not by a rapacious minister, who plunders the people in order to fill his own coffers, to enrich his friends, or to execute his plans of personal revenge: but by

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refentatives of the nation, for fuch, fays our author, are puties of the states; these must consent to the tax in me of their fellow-citizens, and, when they have done suft bear their own share of the load which they have d on the public. In general, we must acknowlede that n in the United Provinces is conducted with great wifin no country do the inhabitants pay greater fums to ment, but, from the manner in which they are collected, den is scarcely perceived; and great care is taken, elpen extraordinary impolitions, to spare the lower class of s as much as possible. Even from the heavy tax of two nt. on all property, whether real or personal, exacted to on the present war, all those are excepted, who can swear ey do not policis two thousand five hundred florins, exly of household furniture, linen, and cloaths.

nay easily be presumed that M. MEERMAN has endeato give as favourable a representation of the Dutch go-

nay easily be prefumed that M. MEERMAN has endeato give as savourable a representation of the Dutch goent, as it will bear. In this we are far from blaming as we think every advocate has a right to make the belt cause, provided it be not maintained at the expence of —but all this might have been done without introducing tion, no less unjust than depreciating, on the admininot justice in Great Britisin, and on that most valuable



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necessarily requires, or than is compatible with the progress of knowlege. As an instance, we may mention the prosecution of a bookfeller and printer a few years ago, for publishing a translation of Dr. Priestley's History of the Corruptions of Christiunity. This exertion of power however depends much on the personal character of the magistrates; if they happen to be liberal and ingenuous, they will discourage frivolous and vexatious restrictions: but this is a precarious foundation of liberty: and if the Bench of Burgermasters should at any time be filled with men infected with methodiffical fanctity, and with a violent zeal for Calvinistic orthodoxy, they may almost annihilate all freedom of the pen. What renders them so exceedingly formidable in this and many other respects, is the power which they claim of proceeding extrajudicially in some cases; in confequence of which they can order a Burger to leave his city within twenty-four hours, without assigning any reason, or laying any crime to his charge. A magistrate of Amsterdam. who was well versed in the laws of his country, being asked whether the burgermasters have really a right to act thus, fairly confesied that it was exceedingly doubtful; and he observed that, for this reason, they were very careful in the exertion of the power: but he added that it would be very difficult, if not impossible, for a person thus banished to procure redress: because the States, to whom he must adores himself, are very unwilling to interfere in any thing relative to the cities.

To what M. MEERMAN affirms of the utility of the office of Stadtholder, and of the virtues of the prefent Prince of Orange, we readily affent. We always have confidered the power of the Stadtholder, provided it be properly limited, as no less favourable to the interests of civil liberty, than useful in a political view; for it is the only check which the Dutch constitution has provided against the encreachments of the aristocracy; by whom, when this office has been abolished, the people have always been appressed. We believe that the prefent Prince is far from being inclined to aim at any authority inconsistent with the liberties of the republic, and we do not with to see his power diminished; but it is highly desirable that all power should be accurately defined, as well as firmly established; no less for the sake of the person possessing it, than for

that of those over whom it is exerted.

The greatest sault of the Dutch constitution is, that it has not in itself those principles of vigour and stability, which are necessary to secure its duration. It consists of two parts, which are indeed powerful restraints on each other; and it may exist as long as their equilibrium is preserved. On great occasions, these parties may unite in pursuit of one common object, and

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may womente the westare of the republic : -but now can it be expected that this will in ours be the bally effects, y when the wait turiery of mercellur, elvs and interests a confidered, by which the let in a members in the letter are active end - and it hearmes, but mirro mortino, or vivil the attending out of lance of geriebu zona konkris ili kolefficio kolumbik kan ilikaratera ■RECT DAM TOWNS OF SPECIAL TOWNS OF SECURISE police made that me regulate and a on mountaine no increases si this state. It is not before more than the military telli-Time littler Lows month of fluttern to a the months and mat. whenever fuch all flur orung titter in unet than the number have degenerated they had in a wit on. I have not in efficie with eviets or mein a fference, have contented for the eviets at the meintante. gr, and each has endeavoured to establish its on which by the rains of the other. In these cases, the weaker pures aux generally courted the affidance of the people to turn the foals in its favour, and the latter, horize no confictur once faire in the government, cannot act otherwise than with the guilanty and violence: - hence the republic has frequently been expised to all the ill can be lanced which can bely to show the interierence of the people of the affairs of growth ment. Althout having the advantages of printical liberty i-but, five our author, are not swo neighbour ng powers guaranteus for the a rift tution? They are to a and the fact lively is the transgest pould's proof of its deficiency with respect to intrinfic a gour. Does nut this citcumftance, which may blir aff sa tive botentates a pretente for interfering in the dementic promise the republic, encanger its independence? It is permaps tortunate, an this respect, that the King of Great helian is one if the parties engaged; because the free confliction of English is tome check, though, alas! not always an effectual one, on the ambition of its monarces. How for they may rady on the King of Proffs, may be conjectured from als a nauft toward Poland. ---- Hem! de guid velis,

Huic mandes, on the additionant tranquillo inferat. Terent. In the former part of the latters, in which the author confines his attention to civil berry, and diplays the advantages which his countrymen er joy in this respect, he is candid and moderate; and, though we cannot join in his high admiration of the Durch constitution, yet, while it continues to be well administered, and the propie are in the main happy under it, we fineerely wish it may remain undisturbed by political commotions, which are always attended with a degree of present evil; while the peod, which they may produce, is not only remote, but also extremely uncertain.

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We are forry that we cannot speak with equal praise of the author's observations on political liberty, which he does not seem to have studied with sufficient attention, and concerning which his ideas are exceedingly confused and inaccurate. If wrong and extravagant notions of liberty have been propagated either by its mistaken friends, or by ill-designing men, the best way of removing the evils to which they may give occasion, is to point out the error, and to diffuse more just and accurate ideas: but when men fly to the opposite extreme, and declaim against all political liberty, because some have misapprehended and abused it, we must suppose either that their understandings are exceedingly weak, or that their hearts are corrupt and maligmant: this is at least the conclusion which many of the defenders of Christianity have thought themselves warranted in making concerning those who, from the evils which have arisen from the amb tious and persecuting spirit of priests, have deduced arguments against the religion, of which these latter were the zealous but unworthy perverters; and if the confequence be fairly drawn in the one case, it is not less legitimate in the other.

It is evident from M. MEERMAN's definition of what he calls political or popular liberty, that he means what is enjoyed by the people in a pure democracy; which, he allows, may be eligible in some of the Swiss cantons, and in other republics, in which the territory is small, and the manners are simple: but he contends that it is utterly unfit for the United Provinces. This is a point which we shall not contest: but the author would have done well to have established it, not by declaiming against this form of government in general, but by pointing out the particular reasons which render it unsuitable to his country.

We must acknowlege that, when we consider the government of the United States, we are not convinced that a good democratic constitution is so absolutely impracticable, as the advocates for monarchy and aristocracy wish to represent it. In America, however, there were many circumstances favourable to its establishment, which are not to be found in Europe, where we do not believe the experiment would succeed; because, exclusively of the combination of princes to maintain the powers which they have so long enjoyed, most of the nations of Europe have too little political wisdom to form, and too little political virtue to preserve, a democratic constitution; neither is it amid the contests of opposite parties, and the horrors of civil discord, that a scheme could be executed, which demands the coolest deliberation, the greatest disinterestedness, and the most persect unanimity.—To have taken notice of the

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American beates, would have been inconfident with the prehundes which this work to enweigh betters, and we observe man all memon of a factories revolution, folly red by a free and sager configuries. Is not carefully mo fee by writers of our amour's party. He could note to i hattrate the areadul escarguences or democracy true what haptened in his own com on between the reast the gand ther, and from the events water aure antager's traces piece in France fince the review tion. In the former case, the evils could not be faid to refult from a democracy; for no such conflication was formed. The ecount which occasioned them originated not with the people. but was the arithmeson; who afterward found that they were weeking with tools armed with a double edge, which might DOC ORIT CUT Of the power of the prince, but also give a dangerous wound to their own. In short, the disorders of which the author here complains, were the unavoidable confequences of the licentiquiness of the people, whom the contending factions had enlifted under their respective standards. Had an attempt been made to change the government of the republic into a monarchy, the endeavour, especially if vigorously opposed, might probabil have been attended with fimilar disturbances: but would it, in this case, have been arguing fairly, to fay that these evils were inseparable from all monarchical confiltutions? Equally uncanded is our author's reasoning, or rather declamation, concerning France, in which he makes no distinction between the revolution in 1-89, and the unhappy events which have taken place fince the last fummer; when the conflitution, framed by the first national affembly, was destroyed by the ambition of bad men; among whom one of the most conspicuous was a prince of royal clood, who wished to get rid of whatever stood between him and the throne. short, M. MEERMAN most injudiciously attempts to confound popular licenticusness with political liberty, and endeavours to transfer to the latter all that abhorrence which every good man must entertain for the former.

Many reasons, (as we have just hinted,) which the author has not mentioned, lead us to believe that, in the present state of Europe, the establishment of a pure democracy, which shall be permanently savourable to the liberties of mankind and promotive of social order and harmony, is an impracticable scheme:—but we cannot, on this account, wish to promote the cause of arbitrary governments and indefinite authority; under which the people have no other security against oppression than what results from the character of their rulers, and no other means of opposing it than direct violence and open rebellion. Without some degree of political liberty, this must be

the wretched situation of subjects, who must consider the enjoyment of civil freedom as what they hold from the mere indulgence of their fovereigns, and must resign it at their com-No nation can be permanently free, unless the people have an influence sufficient to prevent oppressive exertions of power: but if their action, for this purpose, be not guarded by the constitution, and regulated by the laws, it must always be dangerous, because immoderate; and, after occasioning the most dreadful conslicts, will terminate either in absolute slavery, or in the total dissolution of the state. These considerations thew the utility of a mixed government, like that of Great Britain; in which the democratic is combined with the other forms; in which the inconveniences of each are avoided, and their several advantages united. To this one would imagine no rational friend to mankind could object; yet M. MEER-MAN is scarcely less inimical to it than to pure democracy: but his arguments are founded on milrepresentation, and are so trite and childish, that we wonder how a man of sense could condescend to use them. They turn on the hypothesis, that every male inhabitant, without any distinction of property or condition, shall have his vote in the election of all persons in government; and they are accompanied with a complaint that, according to this fystem, the fair sex would not be represented. The following expressions sufficiently shew with how little wisdom and moderation our author treats this subject: 'I cannot,' fays he, ' find words to express my conviction with sufficient force, that political liberty is, in its very nature, the destroyer, the exterminator, the murderer, of civil freedom.' Again, Deprive the British ministry of its influence over parliament, and in the election of a confiderable number of its members; let the several counties and towns be represented in the proportion which the populoufr.ess of each seems to require; and that state, in which the accurate balance of powers is now the admiration of Europe, will fee the energy of its executive power entirely deftroyed, its house of commons transformed into a national convention, and perhaps its king fent to the Tower, or condemned to the fate of a Charles or a Lewis.'

Had the latter observation been made by an English subject, we should have considered it as a libel on the nation, on the constitution, and on the king: in a foreigner, we ascribe it to ignorance or to prejudices, which we pity. Had M. MERMAN been as industrious to study the history of our constitution, as he is ready to misrepresent it, he would have seen that the most valuable of our civil rights have been, not voluntary concessions from our monarchs, but actually wrested from them by the App. Rev. Vol. XI.

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of commons; and that, to the independence of parliaand especially of the lower house, we have been not less ed for the prefervation of our liberties, than we were for it acquisition of them. This may indeed sometimes ocan opposition to the views of a minister; and it ought to hat effect, whenever they are inconfiffent with the freend happiness of the people; which ambition and the love ver are too apt to facrifice to their peculiar objects: but g as this opposition is confined within the limits pre-I by the constitution, and a proper regard is paid to it, r the person nor the government of the king can possibly all endangered. The opposition of the parliament to the ical measures of Charles I. was such as *rendered its ers worthy of the admiration and gratitude of their counn in every age; nor can it be faid to have been the cause death, any farther than as it provoked him to those injus extremes which terminated in his ruin: but this was ilt, not theirs; his obstinacy and violence overturned the lution which, while it authorized the opposition of parit, would have rendered him fecure from the attempts of on. Whoever understands and loves the English conon, will confider the independence of the house of comas not less essential to it than the prerogatives of the The influence, for which the fervile hirelings of the ry are continually endeavouring to apologize, has al-



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ART. IV. Annales de Chimie, &c. Chemical Annals, or a Collection of Memoirs relative to Chemistry and to the Arts depending on it. By Messieurs De Morveau (now Guyton), Lavoisier, Monge, Berthollet, Fourcroy, Adet, Cassenfratz, Dietrich, Seguin, Vauguelin, and Pelletier. 14 vols. 8vo. each containing about 320 pages. Paris. 1789—1793.

THE science of chemistry having, within these sew years, been more cultivated than before, and new light being thrown on it by the labours of philosophers of various countries, the gentlemen, whose names are mentioned in the title to this article, thought they could not render a greater service to science, than by collecting and publishing the substance of such papers as were of most importance to chemistry. This plan was commenced in the year 1789, and has fince been conti-nued by the publication of a volume once in every three We did not at first give any particular account of it; because periodical writings do not fall immediately within our plan; though this perhaps might have been excepted, were it not that the most important parts of its contents came under our confideration in reviewing the memoirs of the Academy of Sciences, and other scientific works, which were then more regularly published than they can be at present: but amid the dreadful calamities in which the greatest part of Europe is now involved, we are glad to turn our own attention, and that of our readers, to the pleafing and ufeful pursuits of science, in order to forget for a moment the difgulting theme of politics; which displays, on the one hand, the savage ambition of unprincipled demagogues, and the tury of licentious multitudes; on the other, the ruinous projects of princes; and, every where, defolation and flaughter. In these circumstances, which put a Rop to the progress of science in that country, where it was most cultivated; which prevent the publication, and impede the circulation, of the uleful labours of philosophers; we are reduced to collect information where ever we can find it; and we must look back to see whether any thing has escaped our notice, which may be worthy of the reader's attention. For this reason, we shall, without farther presace, take a short view of the original and most interesting memoirs in these volumes.

The principal contents of the first volume have been already noticed in the 8th volume of our New Series, p. 169. where we gave an account of an English translation of that portion of the work. We believe that the intention of translating these annals has not been farther prosecuted: at least we have not

beard that any other volumes have been published.

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most interesting memoirs in vol. II. are such as have been noticed by us, or are taken from publications are now pretty generally known. We shall therefore to

III .- On some Phenomena of Vision. By M. MONGE. ight à priori be thought that, when we look through a is, those objects which are white would appear red; and ofe which appear red, would undergo no farther alteof colour than what refulted from the diminution of light. lowever, we are here told, is not always the case; for if s of objects of different colours be surveyed through a red white and red bodies will indeed appear of the same cobut this, instead of being red, will be white. A yellow has the same effect, for yellow objects, seen through it, white: but blue, green, and violet-coloured glatles do ve these phenomena; probably because these colours may duced by the mixture of heterogeneous rays. The illucomes more flriking, in proportion as the objects viewed h the red glass are numerous, and strongly illuminated. Monge observes, that there is another phenomenon, ous to this, which may be very eafily obtained. On a norning, before the fun is rifen, when it is sufficiently o fee the blue colour of the fky, if any white object, as a f paper, be so placed that it can at the same time receive



In order to explain these phenomena, M. Monge remarks that, when we look at a number of objects of different colours, every visible part of the surface of each reflects, with the rays of its peculiar colour, rays of white light; and it is by these that we judge of the relative elevation and depression of its several parts. When we survey objects which have a polished cylindrical surface, we perceive the convexity of this surface by the very same means which the painter is obliged to use in order to represent it on the canvas. Whatever be its colour, we see a stripe parallel to its axis that reflects only white light, which, in the adjacent parts on each fide, is gradually fainter, and, as these recede from the eye, melts into the colour peculiar to the object. The same phenomenon takes place, however diminutive be the object. Every thread, for instance, of a piece of scarlet cloth reflects to the eye not only those red rays which determine the colour of the whole, but also rays of white light, by means of which we should perceive the cylindrical form of the threads, if they were of sufficient magnitude, and by which we do perceive it, when we use a microscope. The number of these rays of white light is varied by the different angles under which the furface is exposed to the light itfelf, and to the eye of the observer; and this variation occasions the different shades and tints in the several parts of its surface.

When we view an object through a red glass, instead of the white light, which would otherwise be restected by the surface, only red rays are transmitted to the eye; these therefore must, by their number, perform that service in determining the re-lative position of the several parts of the surface, which we were accustomed to receive from the white light; and, because this uniformly takes place with respect to every object then within our view, the mind is deceived, and mistakes them for white rays. This deception extends to all other rays of the same kind; and hence red and white surfaces, though painted on the retina by means of red rays, are both perceived by the

mind as white.

I his explanation, the author observes, is confirmed, when it is confidered that the illusion does not take place, if the objects, seen through a red glass, be sew in number, or not Arongly enlightened: if, fixing the red glass in a tube, we look at a fingle object, whether it be white, or red, it will appear of the latter colour; because, in this case, there are no other in the same circumstances to produce the deception.

illusion of a similar kind, and depending, according to M. Monge, on the same cause, is produced in the following experiment: Let a room be illuminated by the light of the fun transmitted through a red silk curtain, and a hole, two or three

lines in diameter, be so made in the curtain, as to admit ravs from the sun, which must be received on a sheet of white paper; the part of this paper on which these rays fall will not appear white, but bright green; and, if the curtain be green, the image of the fun on the paper will exhibit a beautiful red. In both cases, says M. Monge, in consequence of the various objects which we perceive within the room, we mistake for white the homogeneous rays transmitted through the curtain and reflected by the several surfaces; and therefore the rays, which are really white, exciting in us a different situation, must appear of a different colour. he concludes that our judgment concerning colours does not depend folely on the absolute nature of the rays of light which the surfaces ressect to the retina, but is modified by other circumstances: he thinks that it is determined, not so much by the affections of the rays confidered as absolute, as by the relations which may take place between some of these affections, This may indeed be the case with respect to surfaces viewed through a coloured medium, in which our judgment 9s formed merely from a comparison of objects which, it we may so express ourselves, are disgussed: but we are inclined to think that the phenomena of the fun's rays transmitted through a small hole in a red or green curtain may be explained, without supposing any deception. It is remarkable that the phenomena, here represented as universal, are denied as such in a memoir written by M. Gentil, and are afcribed to some peculiar circumstance in the glass used by M. Monge.

Vol. IV.—On the Combination of Phosphorus with Sulphur. By M. Pelletier.

M. Margraaf combined phosphorus with sulphur by means of diffillation: M. Pelletier observes that this process is not necessary; as phosphorus will unite with a considerable proportion of sulphur at the temperature of boiling water: but though it might be supposed that the sulphur would render the phosphorus more solid, the combination becomes sluid in the moderate temperature of 50 degrees of Fahrenheit's thermometer.

On the Medicinal Properties of Oxygen Gas, or Vital Air. By M. Fourckoy.

Some physicians having imagined that, in the phthisis pulmonaris, great advantages might accrue to the patient from inspiring vital air, the experiment was tried, without the surest which these gentlemen had expected. The first trial in telalways appeared to give relief, and seemed to prom se the hippiest effects; the patients breathed with greater ease and freedom, every alarming symptom seemed to be alleviated, they

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became more cheerful, and flattered themselves with the hope of a speedy recovery: but the hectic fever was heightened, even while these favourable appearances continued; and they soon gave way to a return of the disorder, with an aggravation of all its worst symptoms; the acceleration of which our author ascribes to the great proportion of caloric, communicated by this air to the animal system. Though the inspiration of oxygen gas, however, he thus detrimental in pulmonary complaints, M. Fourcaoy is of opinion that it may be of great ferwice in those diseases, which are either caused or accompanied by a defect of animal heat, and by a languor of circulation; he tells us that he has seen its beneficial effects in the chlorosis, in scrophulous affections, in indurations of the abdomen, and in the rickets in children; in the moist and chronic asthma, in hypochondriac complaints, and in other disorders of this class. Its immediate effects were an increase of warmth and colour, and an acceleration of the pulse: these symptoms, by the frequent inspiration of vital air, were heightened till they became febrile, and produced that increase of vigour in the solids, which was necessary to enable the constitution to conquer chronic diseases. A letter from M. Chaptal of Montpellier confirms these facts, but contains a caution against the inspiration of that vital air which is obtained from mercurial oxyds. as this has very frequently occasioned a fallivation.

On the Campbor of Murcia. By M. PROUST.

This differtation was written in Spanish, but we have here a translated extract of it, by which we find that the Spaniards obtain camphor from the effential oils of rolemary. marjoram, fage, and lavender: particularly from the latter, which yields it more abundantly than the rest. It is separated from the oil, by distillation, or by evaporation: but the latter feems to be the most Advantageous process. Oil of lavender, fet to evaporate in a cool place in the open air, began, in less than twenty-four hours, to deposit crystals, and yielded a quarter of its own weight of camphor. By distillation, the produce was not above 3 ths. The best way of purifying it to sublimate it with about an eighth part of its weight of lime: thus it becomes white and dry, but lofes about a twentyfourth part of its weight. M. PROUS r observes that the great mystery in refining camphor consists in making use of flat inflead of spherical vessels, and in sublimating it with as great a heat as possible, short of ebullition; by which it is rendered transparent and heavy. It is remarkable that camphor will not boil over the sides of a vessel, of which it takes up a sourth part,

Experiments

periments relative to the Propagation of Sound in Aeriforn.
. By M. PEROLLE.

ese trials were made by placing an alarm watch in vases with the several gases which were to be examined; their is gravities were compared by weighing a cubic spot of and were in the following proportion:

arbonic acid gas - 1080 | Oxygen gas - 769 tmospheric air - 720 | Nitrous gas - 698 ydrogen gas - 72 |

distances, at which the founds ceased to be heard, were

ygen gas - 66,5 feet | In carbonic acid gas 48,4 feet itrous gas - 66,5 | Hydrogen gas 13 mospheric air 59

e results do not at all confirm Dr. Priessles's opinion, the propagation of sounds in these classic studes is propotto their several densities.

ol. V. The most interesting original paper in this volume in the State in which the Bodies were found on digging up or farred Place in Paris, in 1786 and 1787. By M. Drickoy.

is remarkable that of those bodies which had been interred

On



equal quantity of oxygen gas; this mixture took place without any inflammation: but, on adding an inch of nitrous gas, a most violent explosion was produced and broke the receiver; by some pieces of which, M. Pelletier was wounded in the face. The gas, distilled from the phosphoric acid, caught fire when a lighted taper was introduced into it. M. Pelletier thinks that, during the distillation of the acid, water was decomposed, and that its hydrogen, combining with the phosphorus, formed phosphorized hydrogen gas; which, however, was not sufficiently impregnated with phosphorus to take fire on coming into contact with atmospheric, nor even with vital, air.

Vol. VI. Among a variety of extracts from books, and articles which have only local importance, contained in this volume, we find a paper by M. De Fourcroy, complaining that many discoveries made by him have in various publications been ascribed to others. In order to prevent this error, he is resolved that every new sact of importance, which occurs to him in the course of his chemical researches, shall be registered in the office of the secretary to the academy, with the time of the discovery. Five phenomena are here related; for the discovery of which, chemistry is indebted to the assiduity of this gentleman and his assistant, M. Vauguelin.

Some oxygenated muriatic acid gas being introduced into a folution of two drachms of gum arabic in eight ounces of diftilled water, the gum was in a few days converted into the citric acid. It is remarkable that the nitric acid converts gum

into the oxalic or faccharine acid.

The cakes of turnfole, fays our author, owe their blue colour to the carbonat of foda which they contain; and when that is diffolved, they become red. If paper, coloured with turnfole, be moistened with the muriatic acid, and afterward washed to carry off the muriat of foda formed on it, the red colour, which it has thus acquired, will be changed again to blue, on its coming into contact with ammoniac; and if this be evaporated by a gentle heat, the paper will be red. It is therefore only by saturating the soda, that acids alter the colour of the turnfole from blue to red.

M. Fourcroy tells us, that the extract of vegetables is not, as is commonly supposed, a soap, consisting of oil and pot-ash, but that this substance, after being dissolved in water, is separated from it on being exposed to the atmosphere, the oxygen of which it absorbs, and loses its solubility. The oxygenated muriatic acid converts it into a yellow concrete substance, which is soluble, not in water, but in alcohol and in the alkalies.

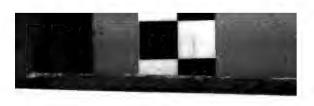
iffilling a pound of the ferum of the blood of an on, me ounces of the diluted nitric acid, M. FOURCRUY d a fmell resembling that of bitter almonds, which inthe Prussic acid. Accordingly, this produce being with the oxyd precipitated by lime from the sulphat of d with a little of the muriatic acid, yielded a very l Prussian blue. Our author thinks this process much apple and commodious than that of Scheele.

pagulating, by heat, the arterial blood of an ox mixed hird part of its weight of water, a fluid was feparated; when carefully evaporated, yielded a juice perfectly ng bile in colour, tafte, and fmell, and, on being

, appeared to be of the same nature.

AUGUELIN, in a chemical memoir on cassia, cautions tries against the use of brass or copper vessels in making ces. In the rattling cassia, he has frequently discovered f tartarous and acetous acid; and he assures us that, stract bought at the shops, he has often detected a conquantity of oxyd of copper. It were to be wished apothecaries were forbidden to use either brass or copper

be Formation of the Nitric Acid, during the reciprocal fition of Oxyd of Mercury and Ammoniac. By M. De



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mercury precipitated, by the fixed caustic alkali, from corrosive sublimate; the oxyd became black; some of it was revived; and there remained in the liquid a triple salt, the elements of which the author indicates by giving it the appellation of ammoniaco-mercurial nitrat. Another method of forming the nitric acid, discovered by the writer of this memoir, is by pouring the concentered sulphuric acid on the liquid Prussiat of soda, or the caustic mineral alkali saturated with the colouring matter of Prussian blue: this mixture is attended with effervescence, and emits a vapour, which has the smell of the acid of nitre, and is of a red colour, similar to that of the nitrous vapours, which result from mixing nitrous gas with atmospheric air.

Vol. VII.—On the Culture of the Clove-tree in the Isle of Bourbon, and in Cayenne. By M. Fourcroy.

It is not probable that the Dutch East India company will long retain that monopoly of the spice trade, to secure which they have. more than once degraded their character, by measures not less mean than detellable. It has been discovered that the cinnamon and the clove tree, as well as the nutmeg, may be cultivated in various places with the same success as in the Moluccas. The clove and the nutmeg tree were first planted in the life of France in the year 1760; and, in 1787, above three-thousand plants of the clove-tree were distributed among the colonists of that island and of the Isle of Bourbon. Thence some plants were carried, in 1773, to Cayenne; where they flourished so well, that, in the year 1787, the crop amounted to 273 pounds and might have been much greater, if the cultivators had not prudently left a confiderable number of flowers for feed. In the isle of France, the clove-tree is full of buds in the month of January; the flowers do not open till a long while after this period; and the berries, which succeed them, are not ripe till December. The time for gathering the cloves, which are tubulated calices containing the petals and the organs of fructification, is just before the flowers begin to expand; they are then red, unctuous, and highly aromatic. are trees which produce 50 pounds of cloves, beside 12,000 berries for feed; and it is remarkable that the plants which are natives of these islands, and have been raised from seed there, produce finer cloves than those which were originally brought from the Moluccas. When the cloves are gathered, the best way is to dry them in the fun; at least, of the various methods of treating them which have been tried, none have fuc-ceeded fo well. The cloves of Bourbon are in some respects. superior to those of the Moluccas; they are more highly aromatic.

matic, and yield a greater proportion of effential oil; which is much more clear, of a more delicate odour, and much lighter, than that of the Durch clove.

On the Calcareous Phosphat. By Meffirs. BERTRAND, PELLE-TIER, and L. DONADEI.

This mineral is found in Estramadura. It is of a whitish colour, and of great solidity, though not sufficiently hard to Brike fire with steel. If triturated in an iron mortar in the dark, or even if two pieces of it be rubbed together, it becomes luminous: but when it has once lost this property, it does not, like some natural phosphori, receive it again by being exposed to the rays of the sun. If reduced to a very sine powder, and laid on coals, it does not decrepitate, but burns with a beautiful green light; though, if the coals be very hot, and the powder coarse, decrepitation will take place.

According to the analysis, made by these chemists, an hundred grains of the calcareous phosphat is resolvable into the following elements:

100 grains

Extract from the Registers of the Royal Academy of Sciences.
By M. DE LA PLACE.

The formation of water, from the combustion of hydrogen and oxygen gas, is a fact of great importance in the new system of chemistry, which in a great measure depends on it; it cannot therefore be too carefully examined. It is certain that, in many experiments, the water thus formed has contained a little of the nitric acid: but this the French chemists have supposed to be accidental, owing to the mixture of a fmall quantity of azotic with the oxygen gas. Several very ingenious philosophers have been of a different opinion, and have confidered the formation of the nitric acid as a neceffary consequence of the combustion of hydrogen and oxygen Messers. Fourcroy, Seguin, and Vauguelin undertook, therefore, to investigate this question more accurately, and to try whether, by varying the experiment, they could not obtain pure water, without any mixture of acid. The oxygen gas, which they used, was obtained from the super-oxygenated muriat of potash*; and one hundred cubic inches of it contained

^{*} This, which we suppose to be what M. Lavoisier calls oxygemated muriat of potash, is a salt resulting from a combination of what used



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tained only three of azotic gas; the hydrogen gas was produced from zinc dissolved by the sulphuric acid. Both the gales were expoled to the caustic alkali, in order to free them from any fixed air which they might contain; and the process was so managed, that the combustion was much more sow than in any preceding experiment. 25582 cubic inches of hydrogen, and 12457 of oxygen gas, were decomposed when these gases were reduced to the mean thermometrical temperature of 10 degrees of Réaumur's scale, or 54,5 degrees of Fahrenheit's, and the height of the barometer to 28 inches French, which are equivalent to 29,83 inches English measure: the weight of the hydrogen was 1039, and that of the oxygen gas, 6210 grains. The water produced weighed 7245 grains, which was only four grains less than the weight of the gases. Thus, in the water resulting from this process, the weight of the hydrogen was to that of the oxygen, as 14338 to 85662, which is very nearly the proportion indicated by Messes. Lavoiser and Meusnier. The water exhibited no signs of acidity. did not in the least redden paper dyed with turnfole, or violets: when mixed with a folution of nitrat of filver, it occasioned no precipitation, nor even cloudiness; and its specific gravity was the same with that of distilled water. The aeriform residuum in the balloon, in which the combustion had been effected, rendered lime water turbid; which shewed that some fixed air or carbonic acid had been formed from the carbon contained in the hydrogen; the remainder confisted of a little hydrogen gas, and of a mixture of oxygen and azotic gas. It is supposed that, in this experiment, the purity of the oxygen gas, and the Downers of the combustion, prevented the oxygen from combining with the azotic gas, and from forming the nitric acid.

Vol. VIII. - On the Sensations of Heat and Cold. By M. SE-GUIN.

As language is the means of facilitating the operations of the mind, it is certainly of importance to science that it should be rendered as persect as possible, that every distinct idea should be expressed by its peculiar and unvaried appellation, and that every term should, as far as possible, suggest to all the same idea. It is in attempting to establish this accuracy, that the merit of the new chemical nomenclature principally consists; and we must acknowlede that, in this respect, it is greatly superior to the old. Among other improvements to which it has given occasion, M. Seguin directs our attention to the greater pre-

nied to be called dephlogisticated marine acid with the caustic vegetable fixed alkali. This order of salts was discovered by M. Bertbollet, in 1786. cifion with which it enables philosophers to express themselves on the subject of this memoir. Formerly the word heat signified sometimes a sensation, and sometimes the cause of this fensation; which most of the philosophers of the present time ascribe to a peculiar substance; this the new chemists have expressed by the word caloric, reserving the term heat to signify When a greater quantity than usual of caone of its effects. loric is communicated to our bodies, it occasions the sensation of heat: but when, on the contrary, we communicate it to other bodies, we experience the fenfation of cold. As we cannot otherwise appreciate the intensity of heat and cold, than by comparing the several degrees of these sensations, which cannot be reduced to any common standard, our judgment concerning this intensity must be very inaccurate, and must not depend on the quantity of caloric received or communicated, but on the proportion between the present sensation, and that which immediately preceded it. This is illustrated by a variety of ingenious observations, from which the author concludes that the variety in the degree of heat or cold, which we feel on coming into contact with different bodies of the fame temperature, depends on their feveral capacities, on their masses, on their property of conducting heat, and on the renewal of con-We cannot, however, help wondering that one, who professes such great accuracy, should express himself so inaccurately as M. SEGUIN has here done; for beat is, according to his own definition, the fensation, not the substance which causes it; yet surely the sensation cannot be said to be conducted: but this inaccuracy becomes still more striking, when we are told that the thermometer is by no means an exact measurer of beat. As this is an affertion deduced from the preceding proposition, and which our author has not explained, we are at a loss with respect to the sense which ought, in this place, to be connected with the word heat; especially as this affertion is announced as a new discovery, in opposition to an opinion generally received. We do not believe that any philosopher ever confidered the thermometer as an exact measure of the sensations of heat and cold; and Dr. Crawford, several years ago, shewed that it was not a measure of absolute heat; because the quantities of this, in bodies of different kinds, may be unequal, and yet their effect on the thermometer be the same.

Vol. IX. - Extract of a Letter from M. GUYTON (DE MOR-VEAU).

Dr. Priessley had observed that when saline liquors, inclosed in glass tubes hermetically sealed, were exposed to heat, a precipitation took place: but M. Guyron, on an accurate investigation



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of the subject, is convinced that what the Doctor considered as a precipitate, is only an erosion of the glass, resulting from the action of the confined liquor on it. When green instead of white glass was used, this phenomenon did not take place.

On the Electrical Properties of the Magnesio calcareous Borat. By the Abbé HAUY.

The property of becoming electrical by heat, without friction, has been supposed to belong only to the tourmaline and the Brasilian topaz. Some years ago, the author of this memoir discovered it in a crystallized oxyd of zinc, or calamine ; and he has now found that it is possessed by the crystals here mentioned, to which M. Westrum, a German chemist, gave the name of Boracic spar of magnesia and lime. This mineral has also been called, from its figure, cubic quartz. It is found near Lunenburg, in the duchy of Brunswic, near the summit of a mountain which bears the name of Kalkberg. The electricity seems to act in the direction of diagonal lines, drawn from one angle to its opposite, through the centre of the cube. The experiment succeeds best with a very gentle heat. These crystals may also be excited by friction, but not so strongly as by heat.

On the Combination of Oxygen with the Carbon and Hydrogen of the Blood; on the Solution of Oxygen in this Fluid; and on the Manner in which Caloric is separated. By M. HASSENFRATZ.

The theories of respiration, as productive of animal heat, adopted by M. Lavoisier and the ingenious Doctor Crawford. are too well known to need any particular detail. Doctor Girtanner differs from these gentlemen only in supposing that a part of the oxygen combines with the venous blood, and gives it that vivid colour which it exhibits in its passage through the arteries. They are, however, agreed that all the caloric. which the blood diffuses through the animal system, is let loose in the lungs. To this Messis. La Grange and De La Place objected that the temperature of the lungs was never observed to be so much higher than the other parts of animals, as, according to this hypothesis, it must be; and that so high a temperature must tend to their destruction. Hence they concluded that the heat, communicated to the animal system, is not separated in the lungs alone, but that it is gradually detached in every part of the body through which the blood circulates. order to obtain satisfaction with respect to these points, M. HASSENFRATZ tried the experiments here related. He first mixed with venous blood some oxygenated muriatic acid, on

[•] See'M. Rev. Vol. lxxviii. page 621.

the blood was instantly decomposed, and the colour bemuch darker than before: but the colour of venous blood not altered by mixing with it the common muriatic acid, ated that its acidity was nearly equal to that of the oxyed; however, when undiluted muriatic acid was poured e blood, this was instantly decomposed, and a flaky prete of a more vivid colour was formed. Our author obthat, in the oxygenated muriatic acid, the oxygen is in tate in which it will readily combine with the hydrogen arbon of the blood, when it comes in contact with them: ark colour, therefore, which was produced in the first exent, must be that which the blood ultimately receives the oxygen. From these and several other experiments, ASSENFRATZ gives it as his opinion that the vivid colour e, arterial blood is owing to its folution of oxygen gas; during the course of circulation, this oxygen gradually ines with the hydrogen and carbon of the blood, by which s it acquires a deeper colour; that, when it returns to ings by the veins, this combination is completed, and it receives a fresh supply of oxygen, which it carries into rterial fistem. Some caloric, he allows, must be fegain the lungs, where the process begins : but the greater If it is employed in vaporizing the water, which the exan carries with it; and a much larger proportion is let e circulation, by the combination



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tube, the air, which is to be examined, and after being previously gaged in a graduated receiver, must be conveyed by a little at a time. The combustion will continue till all the air be decomposed, and the oxygen absorbed; though, for the sake of greater exactness, the residuum may be more strongly heated. When the apparatus is cool, the residuum must be conveyed into a receiver gaged like the first; and the difference between the two volumes will indicate that of the oxygen gas contained in the air which has thus been examined. When the temperature of the atmosphere is 50 degrees of Fahrenheit's thermometer, there will be no occasion to heat the phosphorus whenever fresh air is introduced; as it will take fire spontaneously, as soon as it comes again into contact with vital air.

Vol. X.—On the Action of Lime, and of some metallic Oxyds, on Phosphorus. By Dr. RAYMOND.

M. Gengembre discovered that, by boiling phosphorus in a solution of pot-ash, a peculiar kind of gas was produced, which had the fingular property of taking fire on coming into contact with the atmosphere, and to which the French chemists have given the appellation of phosphorized hydrogen gas. Dr. RAY-MOND thought of varying the process, in order to discover whether this gas might not be produced in some other way. He took two ounces of lime slaked in the air, a drachm of phosphorus cut small, with half an ounce of water, which he mixed up into a foft paste, and put into a stone retort; to this retort a tube was fitted, the internal diameter of which, he says, ought not to exceed a line and a half, communicating with a receiver full of water. As foon as the retort was well heated, the phosphorized hydrogen gas was generated so abundantly, that, from the quantity of ingredients here mentioned, no less than three quarts of it were obtained. The residuum was found to have all the characters of the native phosphat of lime. Hence the Doctor supposes that the water was decomposed during the process, and that its oxygen served to acidify the phosphorus; which, in this state, was combined with the lime, and formed the phosphat; while its hydrogen, assuming a gasous state, carried with it a part of the phosphorus, to which the property of taking fire by contact with the air must be The gas foon loses this property, and the phosphorus is condensed on the sides of the receiver; great caution, however, is necessary; for though a part of the gas may seem to have deposited its phosphorus, and to be reduced to pure hydrogen, yet another part, in the same receiver, may retain enough to cause a formidable explosion, when in contact with air.

The facility with which water was thus decomposed led the author to suspect that a similar effect might be produced by APP. REV. Vol. XI.

mixture in the mean temperature of the atmosphere.

Igly he found that, in ten days' time, a small quantity
gen gas was generated in the vials, in which the inwere placed; this, however, was not phosphorized,
not being sufficient to volatilize the phosphorus.

ated by this success, Dr. Raymond resolved to try
uld be effected by metallic oxyds. He made two
like the former: but, instead of lime, he substituted, in
the white oxyd of zinc, and, in the other, the black
iron. After long distillation with great heat, he obrom both phosphorized hydrogen gas: but it was pron much less time, and in greater quantity, from the
zinc, than from that of iron; which he ascribed to the
inity of the former to the phosphoric acid.

he different Sulphats of Mercury; on the Precipation of Its by Ammoniac; and on the Properties of a new Triple alting from this Operation. By M. DE FOURCROY. e performing some experiments to ascertain the effects noniac on sulphat, or, as called by the old chemists, of mercury, M. FOURCROY sound them to be various; t this variety depended on the different modifications of

On farther examination, he discovered that the cause difference might be ascribed, in some measure, to the on between the mercury and the sulphuric acid employed riatic acid converts it into mercurius dulcis. A hundred parts of this fulphat, when dried, contain twelve of fulphuric acid, feventy-five of mercury, eight of oxygen, and five of water.

If this falt be strongly heated, it yields, first, water; then fulphurous acid; and then oxygen gas: if this process be stopped as soon as the sulphurous acid ceases to be separated, the sulphat is converted into turbith mineral, which the author calls yellow sulphat of mercury, or sulphat with excess of oxyd. This is soluble in 2000 parts of water; and, when precipitated by an alkali, is grey. It is in a great measure decomposed by the nitric acid, and the muriatic acid converts it into corrosive sublimate. A hundred parts of turbith mineral contain ten of sulphuric acid, seventy-six of mercury, eleven of oxygen, and three of water.

From the remaining experiments here related, it appears that ammoniac decomposes the sulphats of mercury partially, and not entirely, like the fixed alkalies. When the volatile alkali is poured on a solution of the neutral sulphat, the precipitate is a dark grey powder; if this be exposed to the rays of the fun, part of it is revived, and a falt is formed, which this author calls an ammoniaco-murcurial sulphat; as it is produced by an union of fulphat of ammoniac with fulphat of mercury. M. Fourcroy observes, that this salt contains more ammoniac and oxyd of mercury, in proportion to its fulphuric acid, than the two fulphats of which it confifts; that hence it must be considered, not as a simple combination of them, but as a triple falt, having properties very different from their properties, and formed by the union of an alkaline and metallic base with each other, and with the sulphuric acid. This salt is not produced by the combination of ammoniac with the acid fulphat; because, in this case, the alkali, being saturated with the acid which this contains, does not disengage the oxyd of mer-

Vol. XI.—On some Fasts that have been maintained in opposition to the Antiphlogistic System of Chemistry. By M. BERTHOLLET.

The principal objection here considered, is that offered by M. Westrumb, who insists that dephlogisticated marine acid contains, beside its muriatic base combined with caloric and water, a considerable portion of calx of dephlogisticated manganese; and that it is to this, and not to oxygen, that its yellow colour must be ascribed. In answer to this objection, M. BERTHOLLET produces several experiments, which shew that the oxygenated muriatic acid does not necessarily contain oxyd of manganese. If, says he, the nitric and muriatic acids be mixed, effervescence takes place; and oxygenated muriatic acid is produced. This gas is of the same colour, and has the

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same properties, with that obtained from the oxyd of manganele: but there can be no reason to suspect that manganese is concerned in this produce. Beside, no oxyd of manganese is precipitated by lime, nor by the alkalies, from oxygenated muriatic acid that has been discoloured by light; which would be the case if, as M. Westrumb pretends, this oxyd had been dissolved Muriat of manganese, mixed with this acid, renders it turbid, and the oxyd is precipitated; in this case, the acid loses its colour, because the oxyd has deprived it of its oxygen. After adducing these and other facts of a similar nature, M. BERTHOLLET confesses that, in two or three instances among his numerous experiments, his oxygenated muriatic acid, though prepared with great care, became turbid, and depolited oxyd of manganese; he says that he does not know how to account for this circumstance: but he thinks it was owing to fome accidental quality of the manganese employed in the process.

M. Gren, another German chemist, absolutely denies that recent oxyds, which have not attracted moisture from the air, can be reduced without charcoal, and that vital air can be produced from them. M. BERTHOLLET, in reply, appeals to experience; observing that, if pure nitric acid and mercury be distilled with a brisk heat, nitrous gas will first be produced, and afterward the neck of the retort will be filled with red vapours; when these cease, vital air will be obtained, and the oxyd be reduced. In this case, the oxyd is reduced immediately after its formation, and, not having been in contact with the

air, can have attracted no moisture from it.

The remainder of this memoir is occupied by an account of the oxygenated muriat of pot-ash that has been substituted for nitre, in making a gun-powder which was found to have much greater expansive force than the common sort, but, at the same time, proved so very inflammable, as not to be used without great danger; its taking fire was the cause of a dreadful explosion at Essonne about two or three years since.

On the Composition of the Colouring Matter of Prushan Blue. By Professor Clourt.

From the various experiments which have been made concerning this substance, the Professor suspected that it was the result of a combination of the volatile alkali with carbon; he tells us that he obtained a considerable quantity of Prussian blue by exposing, to a very strong heat, a mixture of five parts of quick lime with one of sal ammoniac, in a retort; to the neck of which was adapted a porcelain tube filled with powdered charcoal made red-hot; the ammoniac, which came over through this, was received in a balloon containing a solution of iron in the sulphuric acid.



On the Method of making Instruments of Elastic Gum or Gaoutchouc. By M. GROSSART.

The elasticity and flexibility of this substance, together with the circumstance of its relisting the action of most fluids, might render it useful in many respects, particularly in surgery: but the form, in which it is brought into Europe, makes it difficult to derive from it all the advantages which it might afford. is now well known that the caoutchouc is the juice of a tree called by Linné Havea caoutchouc: but it is feldom brought to Europe in its fluid state; and whenever this is the case, it is decomposed by the heat, and loses its properties. It may be dissolved in drying oils, and thus makes an excellent varnish, impenetrable by water, and even by air; and unaffected by acids. This has been used for coating balloons; M. Bernard, and afterward Messrs. Durand, employed it as a varnish for their well-known bougies: but thefe, though in many cafes highly useful, have not all the advantages that would result from tubes made of the gum itself. In order to attain this object, folvents have been fought: but all which have hitherto been found alter the nature, and destroy the properties, of the gum. The author, however, justly observes, that an entire solution is unnecessary; all that is requisite is to fosten it to far, that different pieces of it may cohere, and be, as it were, glued together; experience has convinced him that, if two pieces of the elastic gum thus softened be pressed together, and the pressure continued till they be dry, they will be fo firringly united, that, if force be used, the gum will break in any other part as soon as in that cemented. It may thus be softened by ether, by the volatile oils of lavender and turpentine, and even by boiling M. GROSSART's mothod is to cut a gum-bottle in a spiral direction, to as to make of it one long ribband, a few lines in breadth. This he lays in the solvent till it be sufficiently fostened; if boiling water be used, its edges will become rather transparent in about a quarter of an havr; it must then be rolled round a little cylinder or mould, taking care to press the several turns close to each other, so asite form one continued furface; a piece of tape, rolled very tightly over it, ferves to continue the pressure till it be dry. In order to draw the mould out of it, he steeps it a little while in warm water.

On the Combination of Oxygen with the Sulphuric Acid. By M. J. A. GIOBERT.

M. Crell observed that, by the black oxyd of manganese, the fulphuric acid may be oxygenated as well as the muriatic; and M. Schurer, another German chemist, affirmed that, in this state, the sulphuric acid dissolved gold and silver. Messes. Van-

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and Bouvier tried the experiment without fuccels, and he fulphuric acid unaltered by the process. M. Gisbert ore fortunate, and ascribed the failure of the French s to their not diluting the acid. His method is to pour unces of fulphuric acid on two of the black oxyd of manreduced to a fine powder, to which he adds twelve ounces led water; and he lets this mixture digeft during fix hours mperature of between 60 and 70 degrees of Réaumur's it is then boiled for about ten minutes, and twelve ounces er are added to it; after which it is removed from the ffered to cool, and filtrated. The produce is a fulphat ganese with a great excess of acid surcharged with oxy-lt contains, however, a much greater proportion of the f manganese than is ever found in the oxygenated muriad: but this may be in a great measure separated, by ng the liquor while hot, and letting it grow cold before cond quantity of water be added to it. The oxygenated ric acid is of a rose colour, and the intensity of this colour es the degree of its oxygenation. The muriatic acid oxygen from it; yet the adherence of oxygen to the ric feems to be much stronger than to the muriatic acid; oxygenated fulphuric acid has been kept during ten s without undergoing any alteration: it is decomposed rays of the fun, but does not, like the oxygenated muri-



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ward, the liquor became transparent; and, when evaporated to the consistence of syrup, deposited a great number of yellow radiated crystals, which had a saccharine and subacid slavour. If the liquor be exposed to air, confined by mercury, it imbibes oxygen, and the gum separates and floats on its surface; this separation is also greatly promoted by acids, and particularly by the oxygenated muriatic acid: alkalies have an effect directly opposite. The concrete gum, on being exposed to the air, changed its colour from white to brown, and appeared to have all the properties of that which is commonly sold. M. Four-croy advises those who live in the countries where it is produced, and who may wish to send it to Europe in its sluid state, to add the vegetable fixed alkali to it; by which means he thinks its decomposition, and the separation of the gum, will be prevented.

Vol. XII.—Account of a Process for making Kunkel's Phosphorus from Urine, which is shorter and more economical than that by which Messes. Scheele and Ghan extract it from the Bones of Animals. By M. GIOBERT.

This method is founded on the property of the metallic falts to separate the phosphoric acid from urine, which Margraaf, we believe, first discovered: but M. GIOBERT has greatly improved on the process directed by the German chemist, as he avoids the tedious and difgusting operations of evaporating the urine, and exposing it to putrefaction. He tells us, that it is indifferent whether the urine be that of healthy or diseased perfons; and that of horses is nearly as good for this purpose as that which is human. He gradually pours into it a solution of lead in the nitric acid, till the precipitation ceases which this had occasioned; the whole is then diluted with a considerable quantity of water, and afterward filtrated through a linen cloth. The precipitate, which is phosphat of lead, must be made up into a paste with powder of charcoal, and well dried in an iron or copper pan: it must afterward be distilled; when it will yield, first, an ammoniacal, and then an empyreumatic. oil; these oils proceed from the urine, from which it is difficult to purify the phosphat. As foon as the oil ceases to come over, a clean receiver must be applied, and the fire be greatly increased. The phosphorus generally appears in about half an hour; and, within eight hours, twelve or fourteen ounces of it may thus be obtained. If the process be conducted with care M. GIOBERT thinks that a hundred parts of phosphat of lead will yield between fourteen and eighteen of phosphorus.

If, on the phosphat of lead, thus precipitated from urine, a solution of sulphat of ammoniae be poured, and this, after di-

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getting during twelve hours, he filtrated and evaporated, phofiphat of ammonian will be obtained; and, if fulphat of foda be used, the reduct will be proposet of fields.

A jevents Memair, et Magnetin. By M. Coulomb.

M. Couloma's preceding memoirs related chiefly to elecsticity: they were published at different times in the Memoirs of the Azademy of Eciences; and were briefly noticed by us in our review of the feveral volumes of that excellent collection . It is fufficient to rem ad our readers, that he applied the force of tortion of meral wire, which he had previously endeavoured so afcertain, in order to determine the laws of the attractive and repultive forces of the electric and the magnetic fluid; which he found to be in the deplicate reciprocal ratio of the distances or the acting particles from each other. Puriting there inquiries, he enceavoured to compare the force by which needles of the fame diameter, but of different lengths, were earried back to the magnetic merid an from a deviation of thirty degrees. This force, which he confiders as acting in a direction perpendicular to the needle, he calls the directive; and he found that, on cominghing the length of the needles within a certain limit, it decreased in the same proportion: but, when still shorter needles were tried, it appeared to be as the squares of their length.

M. Coulomb afer bes the phenomena of magnetism to two Auids contained in the magnet, and supposes that the several particles of each attract one another, and repel these of the other fluid, in the duplicate inverse ratio of their distances. In a piece of iron which gives no figns of magnetifm, the two Auids remain intimately combined, and neuteralize each other: but when it becomes magnetic, they are separated; the one, which our author calls the boreal, recedes to the northern, and the other, or the austral, to the southern parts of the magnet. These fluids are not emitted by the magnet, but act by attraction and repultion of the analogous fluids of every other magnet that comes within their sphere. I he author farther supposes that, of every magnetic needle, each ferruginous particle is itfelf a little magnet, the poles of which are contiguous to the opposite poles of the adjacent particles. In the northern part of the magnet, the northern pole of each particle is stronger than the fouthern pole of the next; but this excess of force diminishes as the particles approach the centre where the powers become equal; after which that of the fouth pole acquires a fuperiority, which increases as they approximate the fouthern

^{*} See M. Rev. vol. lxxviii. p. 612. 621. vol. lxxxi. p. 604. New Scries, vol. v. p. 491. and vol. viii. p. 512.

extremity

extremity of the needle. In order to illustrate this theory. M. COULOMB magnetized a small tube filled with seel filings, each of which on being afterward poured out, was found to be in fact a separate magnet, having its north and south pole. These hypotheses, however, are by no means either new or satisfactory; the author's supposition, that particles of the same magnetic fluid attract each other, will not account for the repulsion which takes place between poles of the same name. M. Wilke, who maintained a similar hypothesis above twenty years ago, supposed each fluid repulsive with respect to itself, and attractive with respect to the other. As to the latter part of M. Coulome's theory, it appears to us purely hypothetical. We own that we are not fond of these physical hypotheses; they may be plausible and ingenious; but they are of no use in the promotion of science. We adhere to the excellent maxim of Boerhaave, that, in physics, nothing is certain, except facts which are obvious to our fenfes, and those conclusions which are adduced from them by strict mathematical reasoning.

On some Properties of the Muriat of Tin. By M. PELLETIER. This salt is obtained by boiling tin in the muriatic acid; it becomes oxygenated on being exposed to oxygenated muriatic gas, and, in this state, is an useful ingredient in dying: the properties here mentioned depend on its great affinity to oxygen, which it will attract from various acids and metallic oxyds; as it also absorbs this principle from air, M. Pelletien thinks it may be applied with advantage to eudiometrical purposes.

Vol. XI!I.—Explanation of some Phenomena which seem to be contrary to the Law of Chemical Affinity. By M. HASSENFRATZ.

To express by numbers the proportions of affinity between substances, whether simple or compound, in their various combinations, is a problem which has employed the attention of some of the most eminent chemists; of the various tables in which this has been done, M. HASSENFRATZ thinks those the best, which were published by M. Guyton (de Morveau) in the Encyclopédie par ordre de matieres, and from these he has taken the particular cases here discussed.

In these tables, the affinity between the muriatic acid and so is expressed by 31; and that, between the muriatic acid and lime, by 24. It then this acid be exposed to the action of soda and lime at the same time, it will be attracted by the soda with a sorce equal to 31—24 or 7, and muriat of soda will be formed.

Again, the affinity of the carbonic acid to foda is 8, and to lime, 12: whence, if carbonic acid be poured on a mixture of foda

e, the lime will attract the acid with a power equal to or 4. From these premises, it might be concluded on a mixture of lime and soda with muriatic and carried, the result would be muriat of soda and carbonat of but Scheele afferts, that, if a solution of muriat of soda ed on lime, and the mixture be set in a cellar, where abundance of free carbonic acid, or fixed air, the rebe carbonat of soda, and muriat of lime. These and renomena of the same kind associated scheele; and, in account for them, he supposed that the affinities belicalies and acids varied in proportion to the water contact the neutral salt.

e is one circumstance in this experiment, of which M. as not taken notice, though it ought to have been menviz. that a part only of the muriat of soda is decomthis depends on the proportion of the muriat of soda to
lime; for the greater the quantity of the latter is with
to the former, the greater will be that of the carbonat of
it, with this, carbonat of lime will also be formed.—To
these phenomena, our author observes that, if a stone dish
with slaked lime, and water, saturated with muriat of soda,
ed on the lime, the water will be uniformly distributed
the lime, so that each particle of it will be surrounded with

from the simultaneous action of three simple affinities, which may be represented by the following formula. Let a be the affinity of the acid of a neutral falt with its base, b the affinity of the same acid with lime, or any other substance mixed with it, and e, the affinity between the carbonic acid and the base of the neutral salt; then we shall have either a-b c, or a-b c; in the former case, the base of the salt will unite with the carbonic acid, and form a carbonat; in the latter, there will be no decomposition. M. HASSENFRATZ obferves that, by pursuing experiments of this kind with metallic oxyds, and mixing these with neutral falts, with the bases of which they have no affinity, we may discover numerical quantities to express the relative affinities of these oxyds with acids and alkalies; and, by combining these trials with those in which. one metal is precipitated by another, the affinities between oxygen and the several metals may be known.

On the Solubility of Sea Salt in the Solutions of various Neutral Salts. By M. VAUGUELIN.

These experiments are arranged under three classes. In the first, sea-salt, or muriat of soda, was dissolved in solutions of alkaline and earthy sulphats; in the second, in solutions of nitrats; and, in the third, in those of the muriats of pot-ash, of. ammoniac, of carytes, and of lime; in each, the change of temperature, as indicated by Réaumur's thermometer, and the quantity of falt precipitated, was carefully observed. It was. found that most of these solutions were decomposed by the muriat of foda; in which case a quantity of caloric was let loose. proportional to that of the falt precipitated; and that fea-falt is more foluble at a temperature of 10 degrees, than most of the alkaline and earthy neutral falts: but this is not the case in a very high temperature, as it may be precipitated from a boiling folution, by throwing in sulphat of soda. It is also remarkable that several saturated saline solutions will dissolve a greater proportion of muriat of foda, than pure distilled water, without precipitating any of their own falt, and without any calorie being let loofe. This shews, fays M. V AUGUELIN, that a very little accession of caloric is requisite to dissolve sea-salt; and that there is, among these salts, a tendency to combination. which favours the solution of the muriat of soda,

Continuation of a Memoir on the Combination of Phosphorus with Metallic Substances. By M. PELLETIER.

We have already given an account of M. Pelletter's mode of combining phosphoric glass with some metallic substances; in this memoir, he relates experiments, in which he brought the phosphorus into immediate contact with the metal

in sustion; this is certainly a dangerous process: but our author says that the danger may be avoided, by cutting the phosphorus into pieces of about sour grains each, and putting them one by one into the melted metal. The phenomena were nearly the same with those which were mentioned in the preceding memoir on this subject; and platina thus treated became malleable. M. Pelletter thus combined phosphorus with mescury, zinc, bismith, antimony, cobalt, nickel, speiss, manganese, and arsenic. The details are not very interesting; and these combinations not being persect, very little, except their mere possibility, can be concluded from them.

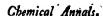
Three Memoirs on the Nutrition of Vegetables. By M. HAS-SENFRATZ.

As the earth, in which plants have grown to a confiderable fize, has been found to have been undiminished in weight; and as some vegetables, and even trees, have been made to grow in water; it has been supposed that only air and water were necessary to their nutrition :- but M. HASSENFRATZ, on repeating these experiments, found that this vegetation was imperfect; and that plants, which had not been fuffered to come into contact with earth, never arrived at such maturity as to produce fruit. This feems indeed to have been acknowleged by M. Du Hamel, in his account of an oak, which grew during eight years in water; and which, though for the first two years it seemed to vegetate faster than if it had been planted in the earth, foon appeared to decline. M. HASSEN-FRATZ tried the experiment with hyacinths, French beans, and creffes; they grew and produced flowers, but never came to full maturity: on analyting them afterward, they were found to contain a less proportion of carbon, than other plants of the fame kind. Hence he concludes that the expansion and growth of vegetables in water alone is occasioned by the combination of the water with the constituent parts of their seeds, or roots; and that the carbon, therein contained, is conveyed by the water to the feveral parts of the plants: thus the increase of this principle, which takes place in vegetables during their growth in earth, cannot be derived either from air or from water; because, when left to derive nourishment from these alone, the original proportion of carbon is diminished during their vegetation.

It is supposed, by many philosophers, that vegetation decomposes carbonic acid; that its carbon is imbibed by the plant; that its oxygen is restored to the atmosphere; and that thus carbonic acid must be considered as the principal source of nutriment to plants, whence they derive continual accession of

carbon:





carbon: -but M. HASSENFRATZ found that plants, vegetating in water impregnated with this acid, did not derive any addition of carbon from it. He observes that, if water and carbonic acid were decomposed in vegetation, a confiderable quantity of caloric must be absorbed, and cold produced: but this, he contends, is contrary to fact. Another objection is that, according to the hypothesis here opposed, air, in which plants vegetate, ought to be oxygenated: but our author affirms that air, in which plants had grown for two months, had undergone no sensible alteration; for though, in the day time, the plant might emit oxygen gas, while exposed to the rays of the fun, yet, during the night, this gas was re-imbibed, and combined with a part of the carbon of the vegetable, which then yielded carbonic acid;—this fact became evident on introducing lime water under the receiver in which the plant was confined.

In order to manifest whence plants derive their carbon, M. HASSENFRATZ reminds us that water, filtrated through manure, is brown, and that, when evaporated, its principal refiduum is coal. Hence he concludes that plants derive their carbon from the earth, and that the fertility, which manure occasions, depends on its introducing into the soil a greater quantity of this principle, combined with the moissure which the vegetables imbibe. This hypothesis is confirmed by the experiments made by M. La Baiffe and M. Bonnet; which shew that plants, growing in water, coloured with madder, become red; and that they grow black, if made to vegetate in ink. Hence it is evident that the roots imbibe, not only the water, but also the matter with which it is coloured, and that this matter is deposited in the substance of the plant. In support of his opinion, our author introduces several ingenious observations on the effects of manure in fertilizing the earth; and he maintains that the strength and vigour of vegetables depend on the quantity of coal diffolved in the water which they imbibe.

Vol. XIV.—Account of M. Jeanety's Method of preparing Platina. By M. BERTHOLLET.

On the history of this metal, and the various attempts to dissolve and render it malleable, we shall not enlarge. The only person* who had been able to apply it to any useful purpose, was M. Rochon; who sufed it with arsenic, and, by combining it with copper and tin, composed a metal of which he

^{*} Except Dr. Ingenhousz; for whose discoveries relative to the malleability, fusibility, and uses of platina, see the account given of his "New Experiments in Natural Philosophy," in the Appendix to our Review, New Series, vol. iii. p. 526.

made mirrors for reflecting telescopes. We are here told that, in the year 1784, M. Chabanon brought from Spain some ingots of platina, which he had purified in a manner that he would not communicate to any one; and he applied to M. Jamesy, a goldfmith of Paris, to make some trinkets of it. Hence this artist was excited to discover the mode of preparing it; in which he succeeded so well, that he is able to draw it into wire, and to make of it all those articles, whether for use or ornament, in

which gold and filver are usually employed.

He first pounds the platina in water, to clear it from heterogeneous substances, and then mixes three marks of platina with fix of white arfenic powdered, and two of refined pot-ash; this done, he heats a large crucible, which will contain forty marks, and throws into it a third part of his mixture, which he exposes to a strong fire, adding the two remaining portions at proper intervals, and stirring the whole together with a rod of platina. He then increases the heat, till the whole is melted. On breaking the crucible, he obtains a well formed mass of metal, which is attracted by the magnet: this he pounds as before, and refines a second time, by repeating the process already described; and if this should not purify it from iron, he renews the same operation; which is seldom necessary.

For the next process, M. Jeanety makes use of a crucible with a flat bottom, about three inches and a half in diameter; into which, when made red hot, he puts three marks of the platina, refined as above and reduced to powder, with an equal weight of arsenic, and a mark of refined pot-ash; this he exposes to a strong fire till the whole is melted, when he lets the crucible cool; observing to keep it in a horizontal position, that the ingot may be of an uniform thickness; this is now a mass of pure fonorous metal, weighing three marks and three ounces; and it is observed that the platina is the more casily and specdily refined in proportion to the quantity of the arfenic combined with it. The ingots, thus obtained, are placed during fix hours in a muffle: but care must be taken not to increase the heat after the evaporation is once begun; as too great a degree of fire would spoil the whole. They are then dipped in oil, and again exposed for fix hours to a heat sufficient to diffipate the oil in smoke. When the evaporation ceases, the fire must be increased as much as possible by oil; for by this, we are told, the arsenic sublimed acquires a metallic splendour, and the platina a perfect malleability, which it would not otherwife posses. The ingots are then cleansed in the nitrous acid, and boiled in distilled water till no acid remains: after which they are exposed to a strong fire, and hammered while bot; which



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must be repeated, till the metal has acquired a sufficient compactnels.

On the Phenomena which occur on combining Ammoniac with the Nitrat and Muriat of Mercury. By M. DE FOURCROY.

The triple falt; which refulted from precipitating sulphat of mercury by ammoniac, induced this gentleman to purfue similar experiments with the nitrat and muriat of this metal. These experiments are here related; and it appears that the refult of them is analogous to that of the decomposition of the fulphat: a triple falt is formed both by the nitrat and the muriat: but, in the former case, a grey precipitate is deposited, and a part of the oxyd is reduced by the ammoniac; whereas, when the muriat is decomposed, no grey precipitate occurs, the oxyd is not reduced, and a very white infoluble triple falt is immediately formed, which is entirely precipitated. To the former of these salts M. Fourcroy gives the name of ammoniaco-mercurial nitrat, with excess of oxyd and ammoniac; and he distinguishes the latter by the appellation of ammoniaco-mercurial muriat. He conjectures that other metallic oxyds, when thus combined with ammoniac, may unite with neutral falts; and that thus various kinds of triple falts may be formed.

On the Preparations of the Phosphorus and Phosphoric Acids, with some Observations on the Phosphorat of Soda. By M. Pel-LETIER.

This philosopher's method of preparing the phosphorus acid differs little from that which was some years ago proposed by M. Sage*, and which, we believe, is now pretty generally known. The principal alterations made by the author of the present memoir consist in his putting each stick of phosphorus into a glass pipe, the lower part of which is shaped like a funnel, terminating in a very small opening; and in covering the apparatus with a tubulated receiver, which he can open at pleasure. By these means he can dissolve a greater quantity of phosphorus without danger of an explosion. His method of converting the phosphorous into the phosphoric acid, by the sitric, or the oxygenated muriatic acid, is the same with that discovered by M. Lavoisier †, which is described in his Elements of Chemistry.

The phosphat of soda is obtained by combining the phosphoric acid with the mineral alcali: it has, we are told, been given with success as a purge; and M. Pelletier thinks it may be applied to the purpose of soldering metals, instead of borax; and indeed it resembles this substance so much in many

See M. Review, vol. lxxi. p. 493.

of its properties, that Messrs. Exchaquet and Struve have supposed that the phosphoric acid is one of the constituent principles of borax.

In the selection of these articles, we have attended only to such as were most generally interesting: but there are many others in the work, which, from an apprehension that we should too much exceed our limits, we have not mentioned, although they are not unworthy of the attention of those chemists who are converts to the Lavoisierian theory. On the whole, the 'Annals of Chemistry' are an useful collection of facts and experiments; which, by diffusing the knowlege of what is already discovered, may serve to encourage as well as to direct the farther pursuits of science. We intend, therefore, to communicate to our readers whatever may be worthy of their attention in the continuation of this work.

ART.V. Asiatic Researches. Vol. II. [Article concluded from the last Appendix.]

On the second Classical Book of the Chinese. By the President. CIR WILLIAM JONES informs us that,

According to a Chinele writer, named LI YANG PING, the ancient characters used in this country were the outlines of visible objects earthly and celectial; but, as things merely intellectual could not be expressed by those figures, the grammarians of China contrived to represent the various operations of the mind by metaphors drawn from the productions of nature: thus the idea of roughnels and of rotundity, of motion and rest, were conveyed to the eye by signs representing a mountain, the sky, a river and the earth; the figures of the sun, the moon, and the stars differently combined, stood for smoothness and fplendour, for any thing artfully wrought, or woven with delicate workmanship; extension, growth, increase, and many other qualities were painted in characters taken from clouds, from the firmament, and from the vegetable part of the creation; the different ways of moving, agility and flowness, idleness and diligence, were expressed by various infects, birds, fish, and quadrupeds: in this manner, passions and sentiments were traced by the pencil, and ideas not subject to any fense were exhibited to the fight; until by degrees new combinations were invented, new expressions added; the characters deviated imperceptibly from their primitive shape, and the Chinese language became not only clear and forcible, but rich and elegant in the highest degree.'

In this language, adds the Prefident, so antient and so wonderfully composed, are a multitude of books abounding in use-

[·] See Review, New Series, vol iii. p. 951.



Afiatic Researches, Vol. II.

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ful, as well as agreeable, knowlege: but the highest class confifts of five works, one of which at least every Chinese, who aspires to literary honours, must read again and again, until he possess it persectly.—Of these five classical works, that which is at present under consideration is the second, containing three hundred odes, or short poems, in praise of antient sovereigns, and legislators, or descriptive of antient manners. The copies of this book, entitled SHI' KING, are supposed to be much interpolated, and the style of the poems is sometimes too metaphorical, and fometimes obscure from its brevity. Most of these odes are said to be nearly three thousand years old. shall quote the following specimen: the original is given from the Shi' King itself. It is a panegyric on Vucu'n, Prince of Guey in the province of Honang, who died, nearly a century old, in the thirteenth year of the Emperor PINGVANG, seven bundred and fifty fix years before the birth of CHRIST, or one hundred and forty-eight, according to SIR ISAAC NEWTON, after the taking of Troy; so that the Chinese poet might have been contemporary with HESIOD and HOMER, or at least must have written the ode before the Iliad and Odyssey were carried into Greece by Lycurgus.'

Behold, where yon blue riv'let glides
Along the laughing dale;
Light reeds bedeck its verdant fides,
And frolic in the gale:

So shines our Prince! In bright array The Virtues round him wait; And sweetly smil'd th' auspicious day, That rais'd him o'er our State.

As pliant hands in shapes refin'd Rich iv'ry carve and smoothe, His Law thus mould each ductile mind, And every passion soothe.

As gems are taught by patient art
In sparkling ranks to beam,
With Manners thus he forms the heart,
And spreads a gen'ral gleam.

What foft, yet awful, dignity!
What meek, yet manly, grace!
What sweetness dances in his eye,
And blossoms in his face!

So shines our Prince! A sky-born crowd Of Virtues round him blaze: Ne'er should Oblivion's murky cloud Obscure his deathless praise.' On the Indian Game of Chefs. By the President.

Although the game of chess, according to our author, was certainly invented by the Hindus, he cannot find any account of it in its primitive fimple state, in the classical writings of the Bráhman. The game which he here describes is much more complex, and by no means so well contrived, as that which is commonly played in Europe. It is said to be played by sour persons, representing as many princes, two allied armies combating on each side: but, from the description here given, the mode of playing is not easily to be comprehended.

On two Hindu Festivals, and the Indian Sphinx. By the late Colonel Pearce.

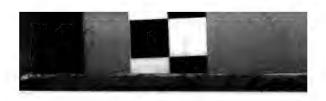
The antient festival of Bhavání is annually celebrated by the Gópas, and all other Hindus, who keep horned cattle for use or prosit: on this seast they visit gardens, erect a pole in the sields, and adorn it with pendants and garlands. The day on which the Colonel describes this sestival as happening, was our first of May, on which the same rites are performed by the same class of people in England, where it is well known to be a relique of antient superstition in that country: it should seem, therefore, that the religion of the East, and the old religion of Britain, had a strong affinity.

The second festival is thus described:

of every class, one subject of diversion is to send people on errands and expeditions, that are to end in disappointment, and raise a laugh at the expense of the person sent. The Hús is always in March, and the last day is the greatest holiday: all the Hindus, who are on that day at Jagannáth, are entitled to certain distinctions, which they hold to be of such importance, that I sound it expedient to stay there till the end of the sestion; and I am of opinion, and so are the rest of the officers, that I saved above sive hundred men by the delay. The origin of the Hús seems lost in autiquity; and I have not been able to pick up the smallest account of it.

of England in times past and that of the Hindus in these times, may not the custom of making April-scols, on the first of that month, indicate some traces of the Hult? I have never yet heard any account of the origin of the English custom; but it is unquestionably very ancient, and is still kept up even in great towns, though less in them than in the country: with us it is chiefly confined to the lower classes of people; but in India high and low join in it; and the late Shuja' ul Daulah, I am told, was very fond of making Húst-fools, though he was a Mustiman of the highest rank. They carry it here so far, as

The days for the celebration of these ceremonies in England and India do not always correspond.



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to fend letters making appointments, in the name of persons, who, it is known, must be absent from their house at the time fixed on; and the laugh is always in proportion to the trouble given.'

The figure, which is supposed to represent a sphink, is thought by the President to be a representation of a lien seizing

a young elephant.

Two Inscriptions from the Vindhya Mountains; translated from the Sanscrit by CHARLES WILKINS, Esq.

Translation of an Inscription in the Maga Language, engraved on a Silver Plate found in a Cave near Islamabad. Communicated by John Shore, Esq.

This inscription is of a nature highly curious, but is too long for our infertion.

On some Roman Coins found at Nelore: Extract of a Letter from Alexander Davidson, Efq.

6 A peasant near Nelore, about 100 miles north-west of Madras, was ploughing on the fide of a stony-craggy hill: his plough was obstructed by some brick-work: he dug, and discovered the remains of a small Hindu temple, under which a little pot was found with Roman coins and medals of the second century.'-These were fold as old gold, and many of them were melted: of those which were recovered, Mr. Davidson had two-an Adrian and a Faustina, of which drawings are given. Many of the coins are said to have been as fresh and beautiful as if they had come out of the mint but yesterday."

Of the Introduction of Arabic into Persian.

This paper will not admit of being abridged; nor can any parts of the following be extracted without danger of injuring the whole. It treats,

On the Astronomical Computations of the Hindus; by SAMUEL Davis, Esq.

and it well deserves the attention of those who wish to inquire into the state of science in India.

On the Baya, or Indian Gross-beak. By AT'HAR ALI' KHA'N of Delbi.

This bird is rather larger than a sparrow, with yellow-brown plumage, a yellowish head and seet, a light-coloured breast, and a conic beak very thick in proportion to his body. He builds his nest on the highest tree, placing it with its entrance downward, to secure it from birds of prey. Strange stories are related of him: he is said to light his nest by means of fireflies, which he catches alive during the night, and confines by means of moist clay: he may be taught to fetch any small thing that his mafter points out to him; ' it is an attested

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it, if a ring be dropped into a deep well, and a fignal be to him, he will fly down with amazing celerity, catch ig before it touches the water, and bring it up to his with apparent exultation.' One inflance of his docility ationed by the author with confidence: 'The young women at Banáres, and in other places, wear thin plates their eyebrows; and when they pass through the streets, not uncommon for the youthful libertines, who amuse lives with training Baya's, to give them a fign which anderstand, and send them to pluck the pieces of gold the foreheads of their mistresses, which they bring in the tothe lovers.'

the Diffection of the Pangolin. By ADAM BURT, Efq. the account of this animal, which we have already exl from the 1st vol. of Afratic Researches*, we shall add

lowing particulars: -

he representation of this animal in the MEMOIRS of the ASIA-Society, makes it unnecessary for me to enter into any geescription of its external figure and appearance. There are a fact five claws, of which the outer and inner are small when red with the other three. There are no diffinct toes; but each anaveable by a joint at its root. This creature is extremely five. If he are not and its feet are unable to prise. Hence



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The stomach is cartilaginous, and analogous to that of the gallinaceous tribe of birds. It was filled with small stones and gravel, which in this part of the country are almost universally calcareous. The inner surface of the stomach was rough to the seel, and formed into solds, the interstices of which were filled with a frothy secretion. The guts were filled with a sandy pulp, in which, however, were interspersed a few distinct small stones. No vestiges of any animal or vegetable food could be traced in the whole prima via. The gall-bladder was distended with a sluid resembling in colour and consistence the dregs of beer.

The subject was a female: its dugs were two, seated on the breast.
The uterus and organs of generation were evidently those of a vivi-

parous animal.'

Mr. Burt offers a conjecture, which he supports with some ingenuity at least, 'that this animal might possibly derive its nourishment from mineral substances.'

On the Lácshi, or Lac, Insect. By M. W. ROXBURGH.

This paper, enlarged, is inserted in the Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society, part 2, for 1791. We have already noticed it in our 7th vol. p. 76.

The Design of a Treatise on the Plants of India. By the President.

SIR WILLIAM JONES here gives a description of five Indian plants, by way of example, and to induce others to continue his plan.

On the Spikenard of the Ancients. By the President.

The Indian spikenard is here supposed to be the Jatámánsi of the mountains of Népàl; and the President collects the sollowing natural characters from an account of it, with which he was savoured by Mr. Burt:

· Aggregate.

· Cal. Scarce any. Margin, hardly discernible.

· Cor. One petal. Tube iomewhat gibbous. Border five cleft.

Stam. Three Anthers.

• Pift. Germ beneath. One Style erect.
• Seed Solitary, crowned with a pappus.

· Root Fibrous.

· Leaves Hearted, fourfold; radical leaves petioled.

It appears, therefore, to be the Protean plant, VALERIAN, a fifter of the Mountain and Celtick Nard, and of a species, which I should describe in the Linnaan style: VALERIANA JATA'MA'NSI floribus triandris, foliis cordatis quaternis, radicalibus petiolatis. The radical leaves, rising from the ground and ensolding the young stem, are plucked up with a part of the root, and, being dried in the sun or by an artificial heat, are fold as a drug, which from its appearance has been called spikenard; though, as the Persian writer observes, it might be compared more properly to the the tail of an ermine: when nothing P p 3

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ns but the dry fibres of the leaves, which retain their original they have some resemblance to a leck of bair, from which the rit name, it feems, is derived. Two mercantile agents from Butan e part of the Dévaraja were examined, at my request, by Mr. aingron, and informed him, that the drug, which the Bencalled Jatamansi, " grew erect above the furface of the ground, bling in colour an ear of green wheat; that, when recent, it had t odour, which was greatly increased by the fimple process of g it; that it abounded on the hills, and even on the plains, of , where it was collected and prepared for medicinal purpoles." its virtues are, experience alone can ascertain; but, as far as ical analogy can justify a conjecture, we may suppose them to be asmodick; and, in our provinces, especially in Behar, the plant robably flourish; so that we may always procure it in a state fit speriment. On the description of the Indian spikenard, comwith the drawing, I must observe, that, though all the leaves, ineated, may appear of the same shape, yet all of them are not expanded. Mr. Burt affures me, that the four radical leaves varied and petioled; and it is most probable, that the cauline and leaves would have a similar form in their state of perfect exon; but, unfortunately, the plants at Gaya are now thrivefled; ncy, who feek farther information, must wait with patience, until ems and leaves shall spring from the roots, or other plants shall ought from Nepal and Butan. On the proposed inquiry into the s of this celebrated plant, I must be permitted to say, that, al-

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every branch of useful knowledge, accompanied Mr. Richard Johnson from Lac'bnau to Calcutta, he visited the humble writer of this tract, who had long been attached to him with sincere affection; and, in the course of their conversation, "One of the fruits of my late excursion, said he, is a present for you, which suits your profession, and will be generally useful to our species: conceiving you to be worthy of it by reason of your affiduity in medical inquiries, I have brought you a prescription, the ingredients of which are easily found, but not easily equalled, as a powerful remedy against all corruptions of the blood, the judbam, and the Persian sire, the remains of which are a source of infinite maladies. It is an old secret of the Hindu Physicians; who applied it also to the cure of cold and moist distempers, as the palsy, distortions of the face, relaxation of the nerves, and similar diseases: its efficacy too has been proved by long experience; and this is the method of preparing it:

"Take of white arfenick, fine and fresh, one tôlá; of picked black pepper six times as much: let both be well beaten at intervals for four days successively in an iron mortar, and then reduced to an impalpable powder in one of stone with a stone pesse, and thus completely levigated, a little water being mixed with them. Make pills of them as large as tares or small pulse, and keep them dry in a shady place.

"One of those pills must be swallowed morning and evening with some besel leaf, or, in countries where the besel is not at hand, with cold water: if the body be cleansed from soulness and obstructions by gentle catharticks and bleeding, before the medicine is administered, the remedy will be speedier."

To this account he adds,

The writer, conformable to the directions of his learned friend, prepared the medicine; and, in the same year, gave it to numbers, who were reduced by the diseases above mentioned to the point of death. Gop is his witness, that they grew better from day to day, were at last completely cured, and are now living (except one or two, who died of other disorders) to attest the truth of this affertion.

On the Cure of Persons bitten by Snakes. By JOHN WILLIAMS, Esq.

Six cases are here related of persons in the most dangerous situations, in consequence of being bitten by the Cobra de Capello, who were cured by the internal and external use of volatile caustic alkali. The dose was a tea-spoonful repeated according to the necessity of the case. Mr. WILLIAMS concludes by saying, I have seen instances of persons bitten by snakes, who have been so long without affistance, that, when they have been brought to me, they have not been able to swallow, from convulsions of the throat and sauces, which is, I observe, a constant symptom of the bite of the Cobra de Capello; and indeed I have had many persons brought to me who

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feription.'

had been dead some time; but never knew an instance of the volatile caustick alkali failing in its effect, where the patient has been able to swallow it.'

In the Appendix to this volume are contained, a Meteorological Diary, kept at Calcutta, by HENRY TRAIL, Esq. from 1st February 1784 to 31st December 1785; and four Papers by Mr. Reuben Burrow.

The first of these is a synopsis of the different cases that may happen in deducing the longitude of one place from another by means of Arnold's Chronometers, and of finding the rates when the difference of the longitude is given.—The second contains memorandums concerning an old building in the Hadjipore district, near the Gunduck river.—This is a cylinder placed on the frustum of a cone: the diameter of the cylinder is about 64 sect: its height, 65 sect: the height of the conic srustum on which the cylinder is placed, is 93 sect; and the diameter of the cone at the base, is 363 sect.

Mr. Burrow fays, that this feems evidently intended for the well-known image of MAHADEO; and he conjectures that the Pyramids of Egypt, as well as those lately discovered in Ireland, and probably too the Tower of Babel, were nothing more than

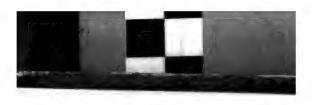
images of the same personage.

In the next paper, are observations of some of the eclipses of Jupiter's Satellites;—and in the last, is given a proof that the Hindus had the Binomial Theorem. We shall quote a part of the valuable introductory remarks accompanying this paper:

The Islands in the bay of Bengal are many of them covered with shells and marine productions, to a great height, and there are beds of large smooth peobles near the Herdwar some hundreds of seet above the present level of the Ganges; the sea has therefore gradually been retiring, and consequently the position of the Equator was formerly farther north than it is at present in this part of the earth: and if a sew similar observations were made in other countries, it is evident that the ancient situation of the pole upon the surface of the earth might be determined sufficiently near for explaining many difficulties and paradoxes in Geographical antiquities: for this purpose also it would be advisable to have permanent meridian lines drawn in high northern latitudes, to be compared in succeeding ages, and also to have marks cut upon rocks in the sea to show the proper level of the water.

In the aforesaid position of the Equator the sands of Tartary were inhabitable and the Siberian climates temperate; and the deserts of the letter Bukbaria were then part of the seat of the Paradise of Moses; and the sour sacred Rivers of Edin went through India, China, Siberia, and into the Cuspian Sea, respectively: this appears from a Bramin map of the world in the Sansirit language which I met with about two years ago in the higher parts of India, together with a valuable Treatise of Geography upon the system of Boodh; both of which I communicated with my ideas on the subject to Mr. WILFORD, of

the



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the Bengal Engineers; and from him the world may expect shortly to be favoured with the first true representation of Scriptural and Hindon

Geography.

From the aforesaid country the Hindoo religion probably spred over the whole earth: there are figns of it in every northern country, and in almost every system of worship: in England it is obvious; Stonehenge is evidently one of the Temples of Boodh; and the Arithmetic, the Astronomy, Astrology, the Holidays, Games, names of the Stars and figures of the Constellations; the ancient Monuments, Laws, and even the languages of the different nations have the strongest marks of the same original. The worship of the sun and sire; human and animal facrifices, &c. have apparently once been universal: the religious ceremonies of the papists seem in many parts to be a mere fervile copy of those of the Goseigns and Fakeers; the Christian Ascetics were very little different from their filthy original the Byraggys. &c.; even the hell of the northern nations is not at all like the hell of the scripture, except in some few particulars; but it is so striking a likenels of the hell of the Hindoos that I should not at all be surprised if the story of the soldier that saw it in SAINT PATRICK's purgatory. described in MATTHEW PARIS's history, should hereafter turn out to be merely a translation from the Sanferit with the names changed. The different tenets of Popery and Deism have a great similarity to the two doctrines of Brahma and Boodh, and as the Bramins were the authors of the Ptolemaic system, so the Boodhifts appear to have been the inventors of the ancient Philolaic or Copernican, as well as of the doctrine of attraction; and probably too the established religion of the Greeks and the Eleufinian mysteries may only be varieties of the two different sects. That the Druids of Britain were Bramins is beyond the least shadow of a doubt; but that they were all murdered and their sciences lost, is out of the bounds of probability; it is much more likely that they turned Schoolmasters and Freemasons and Fortune-tellers, and in this way part of their sciences might easily defcend to posterity, as we find they have done: an old paper said to have been found by Locke bears a confiderable degree of internal evidence both of its own antiquity and of this idea; and on this hypothesis it will be easy to account for many difficult matters that perhaps cannot so clearly be done on any other, and particularly of the great fimilarity between the Hindoo sciences and ours: a comparison between our oldest scientific writers and those of the Hindoos will set the matter beyond dispute, and fortunately the works of Bede carry us twelve hundred years back, which is near enough to the times of the Druids to give hopes of finding there some of their remains: I should have made the comparison myself, but Bede is not an author to be met within this country; however, I compared an Astrolabe in the Nagry character (brought by Dr. MACKINNON from Jynagur) with CHAUCER's description, and found them to agree most minutely; even the center pin which CHAUCER calls "the horse" has a horse's head upon it in the instrument; therefore if CHAUCER's description should happen to be a translation from Bede it will be a strong argument in favour of the hypothesis, for we then could have nothing from the Arabians: what Bungey and Swiffer may contain,

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will also deserve enquiry, and that the comparison may be the readier made, where the books are procurable, I mean very shortly to publish translations of the Leelawotty and Beej Ganeta, on the Arithmetic and

Algebra of the Hindios.

It is much to be feared, however, that many of the best treatises of the Hindoos are lost, and that many of those that remain are imperfect; by the help of a Pundit I translated part of the Beij Ganets near fix years ago, when no European but myself, I believe, even suspected that the Hindoos had any Algebra, but finding that my copy was imperfect, I deferred compleating the translation in hopes of procuring the remainder; I have fince found a small part more, and have seen many copies, but from the plan of the work (which in my opinion is the best way of judging) they still seem all to be imperfect, though the copier generally takes care to put at the end of them that they are compleat. I have the same opinion of the Leelawatty, and for the fame reason; indeed it is obvious that there must have been treatises existing where Algebra was carried much farther: because many of their rules in Astronomy are approximations deduced from infinite Arries; or at least have every appearance of it; such, for instance, as finding the fine from the arc, and the contrary; and finding the angles of a right angled triangle from the hypothenuse and sides, independent of tables of fines; and feveral others of a fimilar nature much more complicated. I have been informed by one of their Pundits, that some time ago, there were other treatises of Algebra, besides that just mentioned, and much more difficult, though he had not seen them; and therefore as it is possible they may still be existing, and yet be in danger of perishing very soon, it is much to be wished that people would collect as many of the books of science as possible; (their poetry is in no danger), and particularly those of the doctrine of Boodh, which perhaps may be met with towards Thibut. That many of their best books are depraved and lost is evident, because there is not now a single book of geometrical elements to be met with; and yet that they had elements not long ago, and apparently more extensive than those of Euclid, is obvious from some of their works of no great antiquity: the same remarks are applicable to their Cosmographical remains, in some of which there are indications of an Astronomy superior to that of the SOORYA SIDDHANT, and such popular treatifes.

* Till we can therefore find some of their more superior works, it must be rather from the form and construction of their astronomical tables and rules, and the properties applied in their accidental solution of questions, &c. that we can judge what they formerly knew, than otherwise; that they were acquainted with a differential method similar to Newton's, I shall give many reasons for believing, in a treatise on the principles of Hindoo Astronomy, which I began more than three years ago, but was prevented from sinishing, by a trouble-some and laborious employment that for two years gave me no leisure whatever; and which (though the small time I had to spare since has been employed in writing a comment on the works of Newton, and explaining them to a very ingenious native who is translating them into Arabic) I hope ere long to have an opportunity of compleating:



Heeren on the Policy, &c. of the Nations of Antiquity. 555° at present I shall only give an extract of a paper explaining the confiruction of some tables, which sirst led me to the idea of their having a differential method.

We are forry that our limits will not allow us to give the remainder of this valuable paper.

We have now noticed each separate communication in this collection; and when we consider the importance and excellence of the aggregate, we look with dread toward any accident that may impede the progress of the Society's researches. We read with great forrow the close of the President's sixth discourse, and we heartily wish to unite our exertions with his to promote the sale of the work in London; that thus may not only be diffused those lights which have hitherto been attained, but that the members may be encouraged in their pursuit of others, which may hereafter be attainable.

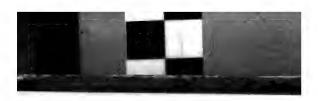
ART. VI. Idéen über die Politik, &c.—i. e. Ideas on the Policy. Intercourse, and Commerce, of the principal Nations of Antiquity. By A.H. J. HEEREN, Professor of Philosophy in the University of Gottingen, and Member of several Literary Societies. 8vo. pp. 487. Gottingen. 1793.

A LTHOUGH it may appear very improbable that we should, at this period of literature, derive more historical and geographical information than has been already collected from the antient authors, who have been so often and so carefully perused, and on most of whom we have had able commentators, we have yet before us a striking instance how much a new point of view, or a combination of new facts, committed to the fagacity of a comprehensive mind, may still elicit from documents which were thought to be altogether exhausted. The discoveries, which have been made, especially within these last twenty years, have certainly, if we except the successful voyages of Columbus, surpassed those of any former interval, of similar, and indeed of far superior extent:—but, while we owe these fuccesses to the great improvements made in navigation, the same cause, it must be owned, by the bias which it has given to our investigations, has made us lose fight of many great and important regions with which our forefathers were far better acquainted than we are.—The trade of the antients was chiefly carried on in the inland parts of the Old Continent, particularly in Asia and Africa; with which, notwithstanding all our ardour for discovery, we are more impersedly acquainted than with the greatest part of the New Continent and the South Sea Islands;—and concerning this subject some materials are extant, which, if carefully collected and judiciously com-

, may not only convey immediate information, but alfa' as a guide to direct our future refearches:—Such is the

t of the prefent work.

is a trite observation, that historians of all ages have atd more to the conflicts of nations, to the convultions of , and to the crimes and follies of individuals, than to the ful arts which lead to human happiness, or to the virtuous generous exertions which, after all, abound in the public il as in the private transactions of men. This observahowever deflitute of novelty, feems to have been one of hief inducements which led Professor HEEREN to the ination to which we owe the present work. The period, aich he limits his refearches, descends no farther than the of Alexander, when splendid conquests and inhuman ater became the chief distinctions which led to preence and fame, and subverted the peaceful intercourse and to which mankind feem at that time to have been ind for a great there of prosperity .- The first two Prosemies ypt, and Scleucus Nicator in Syria, are perhaps the only actuated by any motives but the gratification of their paland to whom antient historians ascribe any exertions for pring the welfare of their people and of mankind in general,



tegret the scantines of the materials that have reached us! and how greatly we are indebted to him who, having carefully collected all these scattered materials, and compared them with, and illustrated them by, the hitherto unsatisfactory information which we have obtained from recent travellers, has established many facts which we little expected ever to see well authenticated!

The present volume relates only to the African nations, under the three heads of Carthage, Ethiopia, and Egypt. authors chiefly consulted are Herodotus, Diodorus Siculus, Polybius, the Periplus (or circum navigation) of Hanno, and that of the Red Sea ascribed to Arrian,-Livy, Appian; and some others, such as Agatharcides and Eratosthenes—who, though full of information, feem as yet to have obtained little attenz tion. - Some of these, especially Herodotus, have obtained varia ous new illustrations, partly from the critical acumen of the learned Profesior, and in a great measure from the corroborata ing information which he has collected from modern travellers: which throw much light on several passages that were considered as obscure, dubious, and perhaps altogether erroneous. These moderns are chiefly Leo Africanus, Bruce, and the accounts collected by the African Affociation: but, beside these, our author displays such a fund of erudition, that nothing, as far as we recollect, seems to have escaped him, which could in any way tend to illustrate his subject.

The following are the titles under which the contents of this work are arranged. I. Of Carthage. 1, The territories of Carthage in Africa. 2, Her possessions in Sardinia, Corfica, Sicily, the Balearic Islands, Spain, and her colonies. 3, Her marine, and maritime commerce. 4, Her inland trade with and final reduction by Rome.—II. Of Ethiopia. 5, Her military force. 6, Her constitution. 7, Her contess. 1, Geographical survey of the Ethiopian nations. 2, Of the state of Meroe. 3, Of the trade of Meroe in Ethiopia. 111. Of Egypt. 1, General account of Egypt. 2, State of Egypt before Psammetichus; her constitution, religion, learning, and commerce, at this early period. 3, State of Egypt from the reign of Psammetichus to the conquest by Alexander.

We are confident that we should gratify our readers, were we to enter into an ample detail of most parts of this interesting performance: but, as our space will not admit of it, we shall confine ourselves to a sketch of the information which the work affords concerning the commerce in the interior parts of Africa; which, at this time, are the peculiar objects of geographical investigation: A country, (says our author,) containing extensive empires of which the names are barely known;

Al peid

nature carries on some of her grandest operations; where species of animals are preserved from the rapacity of n fecret recesses and impenetrable defarts; and where naave rifen to a flate of fociety very different from ours, a polity founded on principles of which we have perhaps least conception."

caravans of Carthage appear to have been one of the of that state, no author having expressly mentioned not even Herodotus, who speaks so fully of the route by the Egyptians penetrated from Thebes into the heart of The articles of commerce, however, with which the

ginians are known to have supplied their neighbouring ependent states, especially the number of flaves which onveyed to the Balearic Islands and several of their es, are fufficient evidence that they must have penetrated pard, if not to the very banks, of the Niger; and this could in those times as well as in our days, be effected by the of caravans. We know that there are fuch caravans at ; and the course which they take, we are well affured, As with the route laid down by Herodotus in the paffage ch we have above alluded.

s passage (Herod. l. iv. c. 181-185.) is in a manner it on which the chapter on the inland-trade of Africa is an commentary.-Herodotus relates the information which



It must here be added, that Herodotus mentions having received much information from the Lotophagi, and the Nasamones their neighbours; which plainly implies a communication with those nations; and the practicability of this communication will in a manner evince its existence; the most eastern dwellings of the Nasamones not being above ten days' journey from Augila, the second station on the great Theban road. Herodotus mentions, but in a very vague manner, certain sale pits (alogo pilalalogo) about ten days' journey from the Atlantes, where men live in huts made of salt, and where it never rains. This spot is conjectured to be the inhospitable Tegasa, visited by Leo Africanus, who spent three days at the pits; whence Tombouctou receives its supply of salt. The distance between these two places is said, by Leo, to be about 20 days' journey.

If the above information be thought to throw some light on what the antients have left us concerning the interior parts of Africa, the chapters on Meroe and the Ethiopian trade, we are persuaded, will prove still more satisfactory and interesting. We again regret our narrow limits, which prevent our doing all the justice that is due to the merits of this curious part of the performance.—Herodotus, in his usual way, traces the route from Elephantine, the southern frontier town of Egypt, to Meroe, which he dignifies by the name of the Metropolis of Ethiopia. -From this evidence, and from the information of Agatharcides, Diodorus Siculus, Strabo, Pliny, and Eratosthenes, the situation of this once celebrated city must have been on the right hand of the Nile, a little below the present Chendi, at about 17° N. lat. and 5215 E. long.; and Pliny expressly mentions that the emissaries sent by Nero to explore these parts had obferved an island in the Nile, named Tadu, facing that city, to which it served to give the shelter of a harbour. We must here have leave to transcribe a short passage from Mr. Bruce; which, as he seems not to have been much biased by the information derived from the antients, is a ftrong confirmation of the locality of that memorable place.

"On the 20th of October in the evening we left Chendi, and rested two miles from the town, and about a mile from the river; and next day, the 21st, at three quarters past sour in the morning, we continued our journey. At nine we alighted to seed our camels, having gone about ten miles. At this place begins a large island in the Nile, several miles long, sull of villages, trees and corn; it is called Kurgos. Opposite to this is the mountain Gibbainy, where is the first scene of ruins I have met with since that of Axum, in Abystinia. We saw here heaps of broken pedestals, like those of Axum, all plainly designed for the statues of the Dog, some pieces of obelish, likewise with hieroglyphics, almost totally obliterated. The Arabs told us these ruins were very extensive, and that many pieces of statues,

both of men and animals, had been dug up there: the statues of the men were mostly of black stone. It is impossible to avoid risquing

a guess, that this is the ancient city of Meroe ...

The fact furely is now beyond a conjecture; and the next step in the inquiry is to investigate the political state of this ence extensive and slourishing metropolis.—We collect, from Diodorus, that it was under the dominion of a cast of priests; that it was the centre of their power and devotional rites; that they sent out emissaries into distant parts, who sounded other towns of no inconsiderable magnitude and consequence;—that Elephantine, Thebes, and perhaps Ammonium, were among the number of these settlements toward the north; and that considering Meroe as the staple of the commerce of Ethiopia, she certainly had establishments to the southward, whence various articles, such as gold, ivory, spices, persumes, &c. were procured, which were not produced, or did not abound, in her own vicinity.

This circumstance leads to a probability, almost amounting to a proof, that there was an intercourse between Meroe and Arabia Felix, whither the produce of India is known to have been imported in the earliest periods. The easiest and most probable communication was undoubtedly across the Straits of Babelmandel; and that such a communication did once exist, seems well authenticated by the account given by Mr. Bruce of the remains of Azab on the African side of those Straits, and of Axum, about midway between Azab and Meroe; which point out the road taken by the caravans that carried on the intercourse between the Ganges and the Mediterranean.—His

words are as follow:

"On the 8th we came to the plain wherein stood Axum, once the capital of Abyssinia, at least as it is supposed. For my part, I believe it to have been the magnificent metropolis of the trading peeple, or Troglodyte Ethiopians. The towns of these people had buildings of great strength, magnitude, and expense, especially at Azab, worthy the magnificence and riches of a state which was from the first ages the emporium of the Indian and African trade."

As among these Rudera there are only ruins of public buildings, and none of private dwellings, it is conjectured that they were not cities of constant residence, but rather places of resort; where the adventurous traders and their attendants lived, as usual, in their tents, but where the religious rites were celebrated with the greatest solemnity, and in a manner becoming the dispositions of men who ventured on expeditions across the desarts, far more difficult and dangerous than those across the Atlantic; whence also may be derived the great influence, or

[·] Bruce's Travels, vol. iv. p. 538.

rather power, of the order of priests, who perhaps were the only constant inhabitants of these spots, which they wished to be considered as the favourite abodes of their divinities.—Thus much appears from the best authorities, that Meroe, Axum, and Azab, were places that had a common origin, and most probably were the principal stations of the caravans which traded to Arabia; while Thebes and Ammonium continued the communication toward Carthage.—Whether from Azab there was an intercourse with the Ethiopians of the more southern parts of Africa, toward Cape Gardesan and the present Zanguebar, remains matter of farther investigation; for which, however, there are sufficient grounds of incitement.

Professor Heeren gives us to understand, in his presace, that if he should meet with encouragement, he intends to publish a second volume, on the policy, &c. of the antient Asiatic states, and a third on the European states. He has likewise intimated to a correspondent that, should the present volume be deemed worthy of a translation into English, he has additional materials which would improve the work essentially, and which he is ready to communicate.—We hope to see both these objects accomplished.

ART. VII. Catholicon. Erste Abtheilung: Naturgeschichte, &c. i. e. Catholicon, Part the First:—being an universal Polyglot-Lexicon of Natural History, with explanatory Observations. By Philip Andrew Nemnich, J. U. L. 4to. pp. 839. Hamburgh and Halle. 1793. London, Sewell. 16s. sewed.

DINDER the general title of Catholicon, this author had fometime fince proposed to lay before the public a general Dictionary of the European languages, digested in one alphabetical series, which was intended to comprize not only the words in common use, but also the technical terms and phrases of every art and science. On mature deliberation, however, and, by the advice of many experienced editors, this plan was laid aside as far too extensive, and likely to prove too costly for those for whom it was chiefly intended, viz. professional men, who would gladly forego all that does not relate to their peculiar pursuits or avocations.—This idea has induced the author to distribute his work into certain classes; and we have now before us the first part of the class relating to natural history, which goes as far as the word Canus, and is conjectured to be about one quarter of the whole of this alphabet.*

[•] The Marine Lexicon is preparing by M. Roding, of which the first part is likewise published: see the next succeeding article.

APP. REV. VOL. XI.

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The specimen before us is an ample proof of the ingenuity, and, we must add, of the indefatigable industry, of the compiler. In the nomenclature of the animals, plants, and minerals, he has followed Gmelin's last edition of the Linnean syltem: to every name is annexed its etymological derivation; which often leads to an enumeration of the Latin and Greek synonims: then follow the names in as many languages as they could be procured, in which the author has not limited himself merely to the European; many Asiatic, and, in general, the original Indian, names having been subjoined.—In every language, he has attended to the principal dialects of it; and the varieties of each species, as well as the names given to animals at their different ages, are inserted; then follow the general observations descriptive of the object, its manners, habits, or any other striking circumstance belonging to it .- None of the terms of the art, and of their different acceptations, appear to have been omitted; and the anatomical technology has been considered as a constituent part of this subject.

In order to convey some idea of the extent of the work, and of the manner in which it is executed, we shall add the following short sketch of the article Anas, which occupies above 12 pages.—The generic name, with a short definition, is at the head of 65 species; among which the more common are of course more amply discussed. Of the Anas boschas domestica, we have the name in 34 principal languages, beside many subordinate and obsolete dialects.—The paragraph English stands thus:— The Duck, the tame-duck, the decoy-duck; Anglesar. Ened; Galic, Tunnag, lach, gaillcheark; Welsh, Hudnwy,

hwyad; Cornish, Hawz, haz, hoet.

1. The drake, or male; Galic, Nolach.

2. The duck, or female.

3. The duckling, the brood of the duck; Galie, Iseun tun-

nag.'

To most of the species are added observations; which, we are consident, will be found satisfactory to those who may not use this work as a lexicon. They are comprehensive, but clear, and to the purpose. As the author solicits hints for the improvement of the succeeding volumes, we would suggest whether a reference to the best icon of every subject might not, without much increasing the bulk, be a convenient addition for those who may be induced to use this work as a manual.—We must add, that, beside the lexicons of the different arts and sciences, the author means to give a nomenclature of the samiliar languages; so that every individual, by having the part that relates to his particular protession or pursuit, and this general



Roding's General Dictionary of Sea Terms. Vol. I. 563 momenclature, will find himself in possession of all that he is likely to want in the way of lexicography.

ART. VIII. Allgemeines Wörterbuch der Marine, &c. i. e. A General Dictionary of Sea-terms. By J. H. Roding. Vol. I. 4to. Sewed. Hamburgh. 1793. (Sewell, London. Price 16s.)

It was hardly to be expected that a nation, which has but little coast, should execute, for Europe, a work like that which is now before us. Such, however, are the advantages of a diffusive cultivation of literature, that Germany (with a constitution which prevents the patronage of national undertakings by the sovereign,) finds, in the encouragement of individuals, a sufficient incentive to every sort of intellectual ex-

ertion which the public interest requires.

This is a most laborious work. It opens with a catalogue of all the books on naval science that have been printed in Europe, of which the first is dated in 1484. These are arranged in the chronological order of their appearance; and are enumerated almost completely: yet we have not observed the following:-Gee, on the Navigation of Great Britain; of which a French translation was printed in 1749. Robertson's Elements of Navigation, 1754. Hamilton's Introduction to Merchandice. containing the Law and Practice relating to Sale, Factorage, Insurance, Shipping, &c. 1788. Account of Greenwich Hos-Brough's Confiderations on the Necessity of pital, 1780. lowering the Freight of Ships employed by the East India Company, 1786; and several of the popular works; as Mariner's New Calendar; Mariner's Compass; Seaman's Vade Mecum; India Officer's Pocket Guide, &c. Under the head 1751, K. a work is ascribed to Kippax which was by him translated from Ustariz. Several pamphlets on the Fisheries are omitted, and fome books of voyages which contain important observations. Articles of treaties relative to navigation should also have been This lift is succeeded by a reference to all the enumerated. scattered essays on nautical subjects inserted in the transactions of different philosophical societies.

The observation, which the author's brief account of these books impresses, is, that there have been in Europe two great nautical schools, the Mediterranean and the Baltic. In the first, a calm sea, the art of ship building was a continual improvement of the oar-rast, a coassing navigation, the practice of the mariners; and the port-customs, the technology, and the maritime laws, all wear marks of this original character. In the second, a stormy sea, the art of ship-building was a progressive evolution of the sail-rast; an open navigation, from the

Roding's General Dictionary of Sea Terms. Vol. 1.

times, was preferred; and the usages, the phraseology, le of regulations, are all tinctured by a corresponding ion. The common and statute law of sea matters, down by tradition, and by the Rhodian code from the s, was gradually modified into that sistem of regulations by the name of "Il Consulato del Mare," which received al fanction in 1075, was re-enacted in most of the sea of the Mediterranean, but not till 1162 at Marseilles, as first printed at Barcelona in 1502. This work has ranslated into most European languages, our own ex-

The Dutch version of 1704 is the best. rules and orders taught by the circumstances and expeof the Baltic sailors were first reduced into a body of a law at Wissby, one of the Anseatic towns, and were in 1505 at Copenhagen, in the Frankish tongue. The

nglith translation appeared in 1536.

probable that the Arabians were among the foremost to mathematical science to the improvement of navigationarliest books on the subject made their appearance at Send Lisbon. The first English hints on this head are in W. Cunningham's Cosmographical Glass, 1559, he recommends the use of the quadrant. In 1581, was sed "The New Attractive, by R. Norman;" a book forms an epocha. It is a treatise on the variation of the



Roding's General Dictionary of Sea Terms. Vol. 1. 565 encouragement of these branches of inquiry recover to Great Britain her antient superiority!

To give an idea of the execution of this dictionary, we shall

translate the articles Ch.

"Chalkembolon. Under this name, the antients defignated every ship beaked with iron for purposes of offence: such beaks or spikes were called embolon. The prow was armed with one or more of them. According to Diodorus, one Piseus, an Italian, invented this weapon, of which the elder Greeks knew nothing, as Homer has not named it. Æschylus, however, calls the ship of Nestor dekembolos, as if it were armed with ten spikes. These spikes were originally made long, and projected from the deck; afterward they were made stronger, shorter, and placed so low as to perforate the enemy's ship under water. This innovation is attributed to Aristo of Corinth. He taught it to the Syracusans, who used it with advantage against the Athenians; as, at the first onset, many of their vessels were thus shattered, or made leaky. Above the sprit, was placed the Parembolis. From coins, it should seem that these spikes were often ornamented with figures of animals.

* Chalkens. This feems to have been the name given by the Greeks to the inner planks of the ship, which were also called lession.

and plejdopodion.

Certe-party: Holland, Certe-partie: Dan. Sarte partie: Swed. Certe-parti: Fron. Charte-partie: Ital. Contratto di nologgio: Span. Contracto di fletamento: Port. Contracto de affretamento. A written contract between the captain and freighter of a veilel, executed before a notary, and of which at least a duplicate is provided. The basis of this document is, that the freighter agrees to provide the captain with a cargo, or a certain portion of cargo, and, after delivery of the same at the place agreed, there, or on his return, to pay or order to be paid some certain price or recompence. In this document, may be inserted the time of stay in a given port, under penalty of sorseiture, the lading to be brought back, the farther voyage, &c. The obligations of the captain consist in undertaking to provide a sound vessel, with all accourrements; to receive the cargo on board; and to carry it faithfully and with speed to the place of destination.

* Cheleusmata. The name given by the Greeks to the planks of the keel; which met in a point. The Latins called them cunei. Probably they served to ease and preserve the keel from the wear

and tear of dragging it ashore. We expose the bare keel.

* Chenifess. An ornament of Greek ships derived from chen, a goose, of which it was an image: it was thought to be auspicious, because geese stoat without sinking. Where this ornament was placed, is unknown.'

The author acknowleges, in the preface, his obligations to certain individuals, who affifted him in a labour which will be useful to the statesman, to the philologist, and even to the practical navigator.

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ART. IX. Memcires du Maréchal Duc DE RICHELIEU: i.e. Memoirs of the Marshal Duke DE RICHELIEU, containing the History of the Courts of Lewis XIV. and XV. 2d Edit. 9 Vols. 8vo. About 400 Pages in each. Paris. 1793.

THE first edition of these memoirs, in sour volumes, appeared in 1790, and we gave an account of it in our Appendix to vol. iii. New Series. In this second edition, the history of the court is brought down to the death of Lewis XV. Except a sew notes of no great importance, the first sour volumes have received no addition; and the character which we gave of them is equally applicable to the remainder of the work. It is the history of despotism, superstition, irreligion, and vice. In the latter volumes, the editor, M. SOULAVIE, speaks more frequently in his own person, than he did in the former; some of his observations are sensible and pertinent: but others shew that he is not uninfluenced by party spirit, and on this account we read him with caution; most of the sacts, however, which he relates, are confirmed by other historians and memorialists.

The fifth and fixth volumes contain the history of the court, from the King's majority to the death of Cardinal Fleury. Every kind of vice was then countenanced by the example of the nobility; and, if we may believe the accounts of feveral other historians befide our author, the most unnatural crimes were perpetrated without shame, and almost without concealment. The conduct of the princes of the royal family was most infamously licentious, mixed with a degree of brutality and cruelty which difgraces humanity. The Count of Charolois murdered one of his valets in the year 1725, in order to carry on, without interruption, an intrigue with the widow of this unhappy man; and he shot several persons, merely from the most wanton barbarity. In conjunction with the Prince of Condé, he was guilty of a piece of cruelty toward Madame de St. Sulpice, of which decency forbids our giving the particulars. Crimes of a similar kind are alleged against the Prince of Conti, of which even the meanest wretch that ever was hanged at Tyburn would blush to be accused.

The character of Lewis XV. was the most despicable that could be imagined: from his education he had imbibed all the silly terrors of superstition, without one sentiment of religion. He remained for some time faithful to his queen, not from affection, nor from a sense of duty, but merely from his sear of the cardinal in this world; and or the devil in the next. The queen was certainly a most sanatical devotee, the blind instrument of artful priests, and had neither personal charms, nor mental accomplishments, to alwast his assections. The invigues



trigues of the courtiers, countenanced by the hypocritical Fleury, to provide a mistress for the king, and the arts by which they at length overcame the timidity of this overgrown boy; for he was nothing else during his whole life; cannot but excite the indignation of the reader. The amours of Lewis with Madame de Mailly, and with her two fifters, Madame de Vintimille and the Dutchess of Chateauroux, are so well known, that we shall not enlarge on this disgusting part of the work before us: but we cannot suppress our indignation on finding even the princes and princesses of the blood submitting to be the vile panders to the luft of the monarch, and countenancing, by their infamous fervility, a conduct on which even the poorest woman, who had the least regard for the effeem of her fellow-creatures, would look down with contempt and aversion; nay, from which all, except the professedly abandoned, who can practise the arts of seduction for the gratification of others, would turn with disdain. Among these worthies, the Duke DE RICHELIEU figures as an accomplished pimp. To these detestable characters, there were very few exceptions; and in this respect it is no more than justice to mention the Duke and Dutchess of Luynes, who disdained to attend the inflalment of a royal concubine, and the lewd orgies held at Choify; on which account the tyrant, who dared not shew his resentment openly, meanly revenged himself by retarding the Duke's promotion.

Among the few good characters, which occur to relieve our attention from the almost uninterrupted scene of yillany here exhibited, the unfortunate Staniflaus, King of Poland, and father to the Queen of France, deserves to be particularly men-This prince had been obliged to refign his throne to Augustus, Elector of Saxony, but, on the Elector's death, was encouraged by the French government to renew his claim, or, at least, to offer himself as a candidate for the monarchy. He had, it is faid, a majority of the Poles in his favour, and Fleury distributed large sums among the grandees in order to secure his re-election: but, as the diet was surrounded by the Russian, Imperial, and Pruffian troops, it was difficult and dangerous for him to go to Warsaw. In order to compass this point, a nobleman, who greatly resembled the king in person, assumed his name and character, and went by sea to Dantzic; while Staniflaus travelled by land, under the disguise of a merchant's clerk, to Warsaw, where he was immediately elected. His expulsion by the Russians, and his subsequent misfortunes, are well known. His character feems to have been amiable: but the French complained that his little court retained much of the Polish ferocity of manners. From the anecdotes related with a view to illustrate this affertion, it appears that these noblemen were

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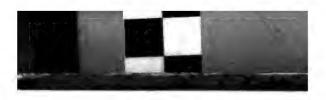
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eficient in politeness to those who did them the honour

editor of these memoirs is a declared enemy to the house tria, and loses no opportunity of expressing his district of y, which, from the age of Charles the Fifth, to the times, has shewn a most unjustifiable ambition and lust er. The character of the Empress Queen is well drawn: oft other crowned heads, she had the art to appear amiable n distress; she could then assume the mask of goodness imanity, and profess a regard for the civil and religious of her subjects: but, when simply seated on the imperial, and freed from those apprehensions which had forced act a seigned part, she displayed her real character, as a and tyrannical princess.

e brave desence of Prague, in 1742, by the French garinder M. M. de Belle-Isle and Broglie, is one of the most
ling events here related. The city was reduced to the
tremity, and the soldiers experienced all the distress which
sult from famine and the rigour of winter. They were
red by the inactivity of Fleury: Lewis was too much enby his infamous pleasures to pay any attention to busand displayed the utmost indifference when told of the
on of the army. At length, an order was given to evathe city, and to retire to Egra, which was done in the



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and good providential government; and, though we believe they are wifely permitted as the natural effects of the vices of mankind, and defigned to produce, in a manner which our contracted faculties cannot differn, consequences worthy of supreme benevolence; yet it is impossible for the man of humanity to contemplate them without deep concern, or to avoid

feeling resentment against their unworthy authors.

No part of history is so pleasing as that which exhibits emancipation from oppression: for nothing can afford greater satisfaction than to see a brave people resolving to be free, shaking off the yoke of unworthy fervitude, and punishing their audacious tyrants. The revolution in Genoa, after it had been conquered by the Austrians, is an event of this kind. Botta, the general of the Empress Queen's forces, had, by his intolent menaces, so terrified the senate and nobles, that these contemptible grandees refolved to refign the republic into his hands, and to throw themselves on his mercy. Adorno alone, who commanded in Savonna, behaved with proper spirit: he declared that he was determined to defend this place to the last, and that he had made a will, by which he had destined all his fortune to the relief of the widows and children of those of his countrymen who might be flain during the fiege. To the meffengers fent by the fenate to command him to refign the town to the Austrians, he answered, " that he had been entrusted with the defence of it by a free republic, and would not obey the orders of an enflaved republic to refign it." Accordingly he fustained a siege and blockade of three months, and did not capitulate till reduced to the last extremity. The rapacity of the Austrians was insatiable, and they added the most intolerable cruelty to their excessive extortions. There were, however, in Genoa forty thousand men, who were neither nobles nor senators: but whose conduct deserved a more honourable title than any which kings and senates can exclusively bestow. The Austrians were about to carry off the cannon, in order to employ them against the allies of the republic; which excited the utmost indignation:-during this operation, an officer happened to strike a Genoese, who did not obey his orders with fufficient alacrity; the Genoese instantly stabbed him to the heart: this was the fignal for a general infurrection; the people attacked the Austrians with stones, which were the only weapons they then had; but they foon procured other arms, notwithstanding the attempt of the Doge and senate to prevent them. Botta was mad with rage; "Shall the Austrians, (he cried,) who drove the French out of Italy, tremble before a Genoese mob?" Yet this Genoese mob, under the command of Deria, defeated them repeatedly, flew several thousands of

nade four thousand of them prisoners, and at length em entirely out of the city. This brave people did not ain their liberty; the perfidious Lewis, who had reaped antages from their spirited conduct, and who could not rove of it when directed against the Austrians, was nough to affift the senate and nobles in re-establishing

stocratical government.

attempt made by the French army, under the Prince of o force a passage over the Alps, is here minutely reid is descrying of attention, as it shews that the greatest es may be furmounted by valour and perfeverance: but ained by the most detestable cruelty. Thirty pealants, ng opposed the invaders of their country, were carried native village, and were there hanged in the presence of ends and relatives.

feventh volume, we have an account of the campaigns and 1745, and of the remainder of the war; together me reflections on the progress of philosophy and the the eighteenth century. Among the events here rehe treatment which the Pretender received from the court attracted our attention, as one proof, among many of the little dependence that can be placed on the friendespotic princes; and that their kind offices, as well as mities, are the refult of a mean felfishness, and vary



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wrote a submissive letter to Lewis, and was released, on giving his word that he would immediately leave France, and never come into it again. He then took refuge in the canton of Fribourg; on which the British minister wrote, in a very haughty style, to the magistrates of that state, complaning, "that it afforded an asylum to an odious race, proscribed by the laws of Great Britain:" this was answered by L'Avoyer with proper spirit. "This odious race, (said he,) is not proscribed by our republic; your letter is highly improper: you forget that you are writing to a sovereign state, and I do not conceive myself obliged to give you any farther answer." The Pretender, however, soon set off for Italy.

The eighth volume is employed in an account of the royal family, of the intrigues and vices of the court, of the king's mistresses, and particularly of Madame de Pompadour; also of the disputes between the Jesuits and the Jansenists, and those between the ministers and the parliaments. All this exhibits such a series of vice and folly, that we turn from it with disgust, and shall not sully our page with any particulars; they are indeed

fufficiently known from other memoirs.

The ninth volume commences with a long detail of the trial, or rather torture, and execution of Damiens, which is shocking to humanity. The cause and the contrivers of this man's attempt on the king's life are mysteries, which, if they were really known to the court, were carefully concealed from the public. The Jesuits accused the parliament, which, with much greater probability in its savour, retorted the charge on the pious disciples of Loyola. We are told that the Duke de Choiseul endeavoured to inspire the king with suspicions of the dauphin; and, on the other hand, the Duke is accused of having poisoned Madame de Pompadour, the dauphiness, and asterward Tercier, whom he dispatched in order to get possession of Broglie's correspondence.

The character of Lewis became more contemptible as he advanced in years; when he divided his whole time between the practices of superstition and the most licentious debauchery. Thus he made himself despited by his subjects, while his profusion and extravagance toward his unworthy favourites provoked the resentment of the people; till, toward the close of his reign, he was as much hated as he had been beloved in the

beginning of it.

In our author's observations, both on politics and religion, we see much of that levity, and of that proneness to run into extremes, with which his own countrymen have so frequently been charged. Some of his reflections are just: but, in all, we observe a superficiality and a want of precision, which leave the

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intisfied. He feems to be a determined enemy to try; but at this we are not aftonished; because he t what it is, and militakes popery for it; not can we how an intelligent Roman catholic, who thinks at all shied, can avoid seeling a secret contempt for his Infidelity is the recessary consequence of the imponizational superstituen on mankind; they are taught to this absurd nonsense as the religion of Christ; and other opportunity ner encouragement to inquire into tof the gospel, it cannot be surprising that they should have should not contempt what is so obviously incontinued on and contempt what is so obviously incontinued on the case of the popery or deism, we it hout he sitation, prefer the latter, as infinitely less able to God, and less prejudicial to the happiness of

Infidelity was prevalent in France long before revolution: nay it prevails, in some degree, in every atholic country, and the public profession of it is really by the dread of the civil and ecclesiastical powers: yeafy is it to account for the political extremes into French have unfortunately deviated. It was perfectly them to despite and hate the government under which, it itself it was completely despicable, they had sufong and so much. We abhor the cruelties and crimes



Van Marum on the Recovery of Persons apparently drowned. 573

we cannot think that his conduct was such as to remove all suspicions of his sincerity. It is in vain, however, to reason on a subject which is now left to the decision of the sword. The King of Prussia has succeeded so far as to engage most of the powers in Europe in a war, of which, though the motive be obvious, it is difficult to conceive the object. Should the combined powers succeed, the French may be exterminated; and monarchical instead of democratical despotism may be established in a desolated waste: but it will probably be at such an immense expence of blood and treasure, that the conquest will be not much less ruinous to the victors, than to the vanquished; and, after all, it is more easy to exterminate men, than opinions.

ART. X. Bedenkingen en Proefmemingen, Cc. i. e. Reflections and Experiments relative to the Recovery of Persons apparently drowned. By M. VAN MARUM, M.D. 8vo. pp. 105. Haarlem. 1793.

OCTOR VAN MARUM is convinced of the truth of Dr. Goodwyn's hypothesis concerning the immediate cause of death by submersion, which he ascribes to the patient's being deprived of pure air: for to the continual supply of this he attributes not only the florid colour of the blood, but also that stimulating quality, by which it excites the heart to contraction. The inflation of the lungs with vital air, or oxygen gas, is therefore the remedy recommended. This elastic stuid, the author fays, may be kept for this purpose in jurs, fitted up like those of his gasometer, of which the reader will find a description in the Appendix to the seventh volume of our New Series. For injecting it, he adviles a fyringe, containing about twenty-three cubic inches, which he prefers to one of greater capacity, from an apprehension of danger from forcing too great a quantity of air into the lungs; as it cannot be expected that all, who may happen to perform this operation, will be sufficiently intelligent and careful. Dr. Goodwyn had advised the use of the syringe to exhaust the water that may be contained in the lungs: but Dr. VAN MARUM has shewn that this method is insufficient, unless the patient be fo placed that the gravity of the water may co-operate with the exhauster: his directions for this are judicious; and he advises the trial always to be made, as it may be done in less than five minutes; and as it cannot be known a priori whether it may not be necessary. At any rate, he observes, it can do no harm, as it tends to clear the lungs of vitiated air, and to remove the adhesion of the epiglottis, by which the rima glottidis is sometimes to closed up as to prevent all access to the lungs. Dr. Goodwyn is of opinion that, after every injection, the aosliu 574 Van Marum on the Recovery of Persons apparently drowned.

piston of the fyringe should be drawn up again, to clear the lungs of the foul air: but Dr. VAN MARUM recommends this to be done only after every second injection, in order to give a longer time for the mixture of the pure air with that which is rendered unfit for respiration.

The restoration of animal warmth is of importance nearly equal to the introduction of vital air: for this purpose the Doctor justly recommends a water-bath, which ought to be heated to a temper-ture of 80 degrees; if this cannot be had,

a bath of warm ashes, or fand, may be used.

Doctor Van Marum ascribes very little efficacy to the stimulants usually applied on these occasions; they may be advisable as auxiliaries, and, in cases where the circulation is not entirely suspended, they may be of service: but they are insufficient to restore the contractile power of the heart, on which the patient's recovery depends. Electricity, he thinks, is the only stimulant capable of effecting a cure; and he attributes the little success, which has hitherto attended the use of it, to the imprudence of the operators; who, by giving electrical shocks that were too strong, destroyed, instead of exciting, the remaining irritability. A feries of sparks from a large machine, or of very weak shocks from a smaller, are what our author advises; and these should be so directed as to pass through the heart. Some of our readers will perhaps, on this occasion, recollect the remarkable case, related in the Reports of the Humane Society, of a child who, after falling out of a window, was taken up to all appearance dead, but was recovered by being electrified . As electricity cannot be applied while the patient is in the bath, the Doctor would not have it tried, except in cases where the warm bath and the injection of pure air have produced no salutary effect.

In order to confirm the utility of the mode of treatment here recommended, the ingenicus author refers us to a differtation which he and M. VAN TROOSTWYK published some years ago; in which they gave an account of the recovery of birds and rabbits by introducing pure air into their lungs, after they had been suffocated in mephitic air †. In addition to these experiments, he now relates others, in which rabbits, that had been kept under water above a minute after they appeared to be dead, were recovered by the warm bath and the injection of pure air. It is remarkable that these experiments never succeed when tried on dogs and cats; which perhaps may be owing to the quantity of water which these animals receive into their lungs. This conjecture seems to be confirmed by an experi-

^{*} See Rev. vol. liii. p. 357. † See Rev. vol. lxxix. p. 613.

De Bree's Observations on the Lever of Roonhuizen.

ment made by our author: he drowned a cat in ink, and, on opening it, he found that this fluid had penetrated into every

part of the lungs, which were entirely coloured by it.

In order to obtain oxygen gas at as cheap a rate as possible, our author procures it from purified nitre; and, for this purpose, makes use of matrasses of Wedgewood's ware, covered with a coating of pipe-clay and sand. The expence attending this process is certainly inconsiderable: but we wish that some more simple method had been pointed out of keeping the vital air ready for use; for the Doctor's apparatus, though very ingenious, is not sufficiently portable to be always at hand. We have seen this elastic shuid long preserved in common bottles, with a little water in them to keep the cork moist; and a wooden tub, with a shelf in it, is certainly neither an expensive nor cumbersome piece of surniture.

ART. XI. Verbandeling, &c. i.e. Observations on the Use of the Lever of Roonhuizen. By John De Bree. 8vo. 16 pages. Amsterdam. 1793.

SIMPLICITY is the character of this fensible little pamphlet, as well as of the instrument which it recommends. M. DE BREE's object is to lay down such directions for the application and use of the lever, as may easily be comprehended by all who have any knowlege of midwifery: this he has done with great plainness. He first gives a short account of the passage of the child's head in a natural labour; and then states, in a very perspicuous manner, the circumstances which occur, when the head of the foetus is locked in the pelvis; in which case, he observes, its situation is generally oblique, and it presents itself as an obtuse angled cone. It is in these cases that our author recommends the lever, as preferable to all other means of delivery. The nature of our work will not permit us to enter into the particulars of his mode of using it; it is sufficient to observe that he manages it with so much gentleness and care. that, in most cases, the patient and the by-standers have no fuspicion that an instrument has been applied; and he makes is a rule not to employ more force, than if he wanted to excite a firong pain. For the fulcrum of his lever, he always chuses one of the offa pubis, avoiding the synchondrosis as much as possible; by which means he does not incur the danger of injuring the urethra, nor of lacerating the perinæum. He alsorecommends this instrument, in preference to the forceps, when the head, though not completely locked in the pelvis, is retarded by its oblique polition; in which case the ear generally lies beneath the finchondrosis ossum pubis: but when the

leuland's Account of a Section of the Synchondrofis, &c. hough locked, prefents itself in a natural fituation, be the forceps.

il. Verbaal wan de Kunftbewerking, Ge. Account of a Section Synchendrefi of toe of a publs, performed by C. BLEULAND, on and Man-midwile in the City of Gouda. 8vo. 36 Gouda, 1793.

pamphlet is no lefs confpicuous for pompofity and vay, than was the foregoing for fimplicity and modelly. gration was attended with forces; that is, the woman tunately recovered; for the child was dead; and M. AND was honoured, by the magiffrates of the town, prefent of a filver bread-balket, with an infeription rethe skill of the operator; on which monument of his y he declaims in a most ridiculous rhapfody.

cale of this kind, furcels is not the only test of the 's nierit; for all will agree that to expose the poor to this dangerous operation, unless it were the only left for faving her life, was a rath and cruel proceedferving of centure rather than of reward. It does not, t, appear from M. BLEULAND's narrative, that this abaccellity exided t except which, nothing can vindicate in having resourte to to hazardous an operation. He was four feet five inches in height; he is however very particular in ascertaining the length and breadth of the table on which she was laid when the operation was performed; this was certainly a circumstance of great importance toward de-

termining concerning its expediency.

It is evident that, in this case, the woman might have been delivered without having recourse to the section; and all will allow that other means ought to have been tried by the author, before he carried bis bappy thought into execution. Dr. Osborne, in his essay on laborious parturition, gives an instance of the delivery of a woman, the diameter of whose pelvis, from the pubis to the os facrum, was not above an inch and an half: but M. De Bree, the author of the preceding 'Observations,' furnished a Friend (from whom we heard it,) with a case which occurred in his practice, and in which, by the crotchet, he delivered a woman, in whom the bones of the pelvis were so deformed, that the distance between the facrum and pubis was scarcely an inch. The patient was so distorted, that the loins were bent inward more than three inches; and the one hip was above a hand-breadth higher than the other. She had been several days in labour, and the child had been so long dead, that putrefaction had taken place; it was indeed a work of great difficulty, and required the most unwearied patience and perseverance; he had, however, the satisfaction of saving the poor woman, after two men-midwives had given up the case so hopeless, and had determined that, to undergo the Cæsarian operation, was the only resource left. After bringing away the child, M. De Bree attempted to introduce his hand, in order to extricate the placenta: but, to his surprise, he found that the diameter of the pelvis was not equal to the thickness either of bis hand, or of that of any one present.

We are ready to do all possible justice to the liberal intentions of the magistrates of Gouda in thus rewarding M. BLEU-LAND's success, which was indeed remarkable: for he tells us that, two months after the operation, the patient was able not only to walk to church, but also to dance; would they not, however, have acted more cautiously, if they had first ordered an inquiry to be made concerning the necessity of thus endangering the life of the woman, and had estimated his merits by this circumftance? We have known inftances, in which the fame, that results from difficult operations, has tempted practitioners to have recourse to the knife, when patience and gentler means of relief might have been applied with equal prospect of success; and we should be forry to see this motive acquire greater influence from the hope of furnishing their fide-boards with plate by these perilous experiments. About a year ago, pompous account was published of a Castarian operation pertoimeq. APP. REV. VOL. XI. RI

Follie's Travels in the Defert of Saara, or Zara.

by a Professor in one of the universities of the Dutch ic, on a poor woman, in whom the smallest diameter of vis was, by his own account, two inches and an half of essential of being able to dance, the patient died on the fourth. The child lived. In his account, the Professor tells us ster the child was extracted, he introduced his hand into und, in order to measure the diameter of the pelvis, but not succeed on account of the sudden contraction of the Some will perhaps think that, in the attempt, he difmore curiosity than tenderness.

XIII. Voyage dans le Défert de Sabara, &c. i.e. Travels in the rt of Saara, or Zara. By M. FOLLIE, Officer of the Colo-Administration. 8vo. Paris. 1792.

s work appears to be a relation, by another of the suffers, of the unfortunate expedition in which M. Sauguir
igaged, and of whose account of it an abstract was given
Appendix to our 8th vol. N. S. p. 559-562. M. Forif this be a real name,) therefore, relates many particulars
we have already noticed, and some, referring more
lly to himself, with which we were not before acquainted.
s, that he, with nine of his sellow-passengers, sell to the



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he performed more than half this journey on foot, driven along by five or fix flaves armed with flicks; at last he fainted with fatigue, and, when his drivers found that he was so much exhausted that even blows failed of their effect, they determined to set him on a camel. On his arrival at his matter's habitation, he was allowed three days to recover his strength, and met with much better treatment: he was afterward sold to another merchant who lived at Glimy, where he was redeemed from slavery by Messrs. Cabannes and Desparres, French merchants at Mogador; and, partly by threats, and partly by money, most of those who had been wrecked with our author were recovered, and shipped off with him for Cadiz.

The narration of these adventures employs the first part of the work; they are certainly extraordinary, and the author's manner of relating them is not less romantic than the adventures themselves. He appears to have botne his sufferings with great-patience and fortitude. In the remaining part of his book, he describes the inhabitants of Saara. He thinks that they are descended from the Arabs, Moors, and Portuguese, who sted from the kingdoms of Barbary, when these were subdued by the Sharifs; and he mentions a variety of circumstances respecting the manners and customs of these people, which we have before extracted from M. Saugnier's work. We think that, in several parts of this volume, the author displays greater warmth of imagination than solidity of judgment; and we should therefore

receive his accounts with some degree of caution. Toward the close of the work, we find some observations on the Moors of Morocco, which contain no new information, except some anecdotes of the Emperor then on the throne, which shew him to have been a most inhuman bloody tyrant. By his order, the French merchants, who were fettled at Sainte Croix, were commanded to remove to Mogador: on this occasion, they experienced a remarkable instance of the strictness with which the Arabs attend to the obligations of hospi-A chief, who was resolved to plunder this caravan, had placed a body of four hundred men, well armed, near one of the defiles, through which it was obliged to pass. merchants, whose guard was much inferior in number, must have fallen victims to the rapacity and cruelty of these robbers, if a sudden and violent rain had not obliged the caravan to halt before they came to the pass. Night was approaching when the guide proposed to alter the course, and to march to the habitation of the chief, of whose design they were ignorant. On their arrival, they implored his protection, and unloaded their camels. He frankly told them that he had posted sour hundred men with a view to intercept them; faying, that the prophet must have inspired them with the thought of taking re-

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fuge with him, by which they had escaped a snare which they could not otherwise have avoided. He added, that they had now nothing to sear, that he was commanded by his religion so protect them, and that his men, instead of attacking them, should escort them to Mogador. He kept his word, and would neither accept of any present himself, nor suffer any to be given to his people.

ART. XIV. An Essay on the Natural Equality of Mankind, on the Rights that result from it, and the Duties which it imposes; to which a Silver Medal was adjudged by the Teylerian Society at Haarlem. By William Lawrence Brown, D.D. Professor of Moral Philosophy and the Law of Nature, and of Ecclesiastical History, and Minister of the English Church at Utrecht. 8vo. pp. 272. 38. 6d. Boards. Cadell, London. 1793.

or this ingenious differtation we gave a short account in our last Appendix, (Vol. x.) when it came under our notice in the publication of the Society to which it was addressed. In its present form, it appears to greater advantage, as the excellence of style and composition must be much more conspicuous in the original than it can be in a translation. This however is very far from being its only merit. The propriety of reasoning, the liberality of fentiment, and the powers of eloquence, with which the Professor states and urges the reciprocal duties and obligations of mankind, deserve the highest praise, and entitle the learned author to a very distinguished rank among moral writers. When, in our former review, we ventured to hint that we thought it less accurate than we could have wished in the discussion of the former part of the question, we particularly alluded to the principal proposition of the first book; in which, after infifting on the natural diversities among men, and on the unequal distribution of human abilities and talents, the Professor maintains, what he acknowleges may appear paradoxical, that an equality the most exact and perfect, in respect of every moral and locial obligation, springs from inequality itself.' We admire the ingenuity which he displays in illustrating the pofition, and we confess the truth of what he advances on the subject: but we do not think it the whole truth, of which the question required the discussion. The mutual dependence of men on each other establishes, in a certain sense, a degree of equality among those who are the most unequal in external, condition, or in other accidental circumstances: but this is neither the fole nor the principal respect, in which mankind may be said to be equal. The Professor has indeed enumerated. other obvious circumstances of equality, in the fixth chapter, which we cannot help confidering as not less important to the _noill sup.

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question, than that on which he seems to lay the chief stress: but these appear to be thrown, as it were, into the back ground, and thus not to have that force which he very properly ascribes to them, when he treats of the rights and duties of mankind. The mutual dependence of individuals on each other is a very proper argument to enforce the focial duties, as it displays the intentions of Providence, and shews the expediency. of virtue: but is it not a confideration too remote to be regarded as the immediate foundation of natural rights, the very idea of which feems to indicate that they are derived from fomething inherent in human nature, and not merely from circumstances which, though they necessarily result from the constitution of society, are, with respect to every individual, accidental and precarious. In this light, the Professior himself feems to confider these rights, when he observes that there are certain principles so strongly interwoven with the human frame, fo intimately lended with its effence, fo efficient of all that is human, that the violation of them cannot be regarded in any other light than in that of a degradation, nay, an entire extinction, of the diffinctive attributes of the human character.

Of consequence, (he adds,) every man stipulates, by entering into society with his species, that the enjoyments grounded on these principles, or, in other words, the rights which attach to them as the gifts of God to his rational creatures, shall be maintained to him inviolate, and reserves to himself the privilege of defending them at all hazards, whenever it is attempted to wrest them from him. For, as every human being is a constituent member of the social body, he is, while he discharges the duties incident to his peculiar capacity, entitled, equally with every other, to the grand prerogatives of human nature, which civil society is intended to maintain and improve. These rights are the necessary appendages of that equality, which substitute and improve attended to maintain and improve.

Similar observations may be applied to duties, which are infeparable from rights. The Professor justly observes, that the
obligation of doing to others as we wish them to do to us, is
founded on the equality of human nature, amid all the diverfities of condition and circumstances; that it takes, as the rule of
conduct, the feelings of every individual, supposing his condition
were exchanged with that of the person toward whom he acts:
but what is the equality of human nature here mentioned? We
cannot conceive it to be merely equality in respect of moral
obligation; for then the superstructure and the foundation
would be one and the same: nor can it be that equality only
which results from inequality of condition, and consists in the
mutual dependence of individuals on each other, because equality of moral obligation would still be the same, if there were
no inequality of condition.

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s effay had been on a subject of less importance, or had less merit, we should have spared ourselves the trouble ng these remarks. It is easy to bestow indiscriminate but, in so doing, we should ill discharge the duty which to the public; especially with respect to a subject of from the temper of the times, it may not a little contrithe happiness of mankind to cultivate the most accurate

Toward attaining this great and useful end, Professor 's effay may be of much fervice to the public, as it shews doctrine of equality, when well understood, is not inio the order and felicity of fociety, and as it points out lissoluble connection between right and duties, which hilosophical writer ought ever to keep in view. In this we are particularly pleased with the second and third in which religious and philosophical arguments are most united in the best cause. We admire the author's ardent liberty both civil and religious, his warm refentment of ries which tyrants inflict on their fellow-creatures, and nly spirit, which leads him to address those of the highest as of the inferior ranks, in the firm yet decent language e. Works like this, which are really dictated by foundjudgment and benignity of heart, must be productive of penent to mankind: their effects may not be immedimugat: but we have they are therefore not less real



(583)

ART. XV. Differtatio inauguralis, &c. i.e. An inaugural Differtation shewing that the Heart is without Nerves; to which is added a Disquisition concerning the Power of Nerves surrounding Arteries, By JOHN BERNARD JACOB BEHRENDS. 4to. pp. 43. Mentz. 1792.

THERE is considerable merit in this differtation: for if the facts be well ascertained, on which the author founds his conclusions, it will rectify some errors in physiological and pathological reasonings, and also explode some unjust notions in

practice.

The title will give the reader an unfavourable opinion of this publication, for it is contrary to repeated demonstration to affirm, that the heart has no nerves. On perusing the differtation, it appeared that the author means to prove no such thing, but to demonstrate that the muscular part or substance of the heart has no nerves; and that this organ has no nerves but those which accompany the large vessels—the coronary arteries.

Walter and others have contended, that the nerves of the heart must be very numerous, on account of its constant motion, force, and strength; and others, as the present author, have thought that nerves must be useless to this organ, because it can perform its motions in consequence of its irritability, and of the constant repetition of the stimulus of the blood.

Others have affirmed, that the heart is the most sensible part of the human body; while some, again, have maintained, that

there is no proof of this fenfibility.

Haller said that this organ has very few nerves; and Soemmering, that it has probably none, but those of the large vessels. The cardiac nerves being irritated, the action of the heart is not accelerated; and if they be divided or destroyed, the motion of it is not affected; nor do wounds of the medulla. spinalis—the source of the nerves of the heart—alter its sunction. Haller has shewn that, by irritating the nerves of the heart, the motion of it is not altered. The organs of voluntary motion have numerous nerves: but the heart has none in Our author's words are: * Nervorum cordis exits substance. amini scrupulosius intendens, tum observando tum analogice conchidendo, didici, nullos omnino nervos ne surculum quidem in ipsam cordis carnem dispergi. Nervos omnes, quotquot a magnis vasis ad cor descendunt arterias cironarias sequi viai comites, absque ullo ramulo cordis tarni immisso. The heart has no vis nervosa: but its action is excited by the stimulus of the blood applied to the irzitable power.

The nerves of the heart resemble, in figure, magnitude, and conflictence, those of the blood-vessels, and differ in these ve-

specis from those of the voluntary mulcles.

Rr 4 Wounds

584 Behrends's inaugural Differtation on the Heart.

Wounds of the heart produce little pain; and so do inflammations, wearns, and ulcers.

It is not a new opinion that the beart itself is insensible; for Galen and Mallus both considered nerves to be unnecessary to

the heart.

Caldani and Fontana found that opium, applied externally to the heart, did not affect its motion: but this drug, applied to muscles or their nerves, diminishes the muscular motion. In apoplexy, all the functions depending on the wis nervessa are affected, but not that of the heart.

The heart does not become less irritable to the blood by the repetition of this stimulus, any more than the eye does to light, the stomach to the fucus gestricus, or the intestines to bile.

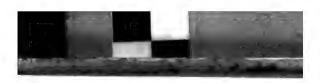
The heart, then, as Metzgerus affirms, affords an example of a muscle whose action does not depend on the vis nervosa; for the irritability to blood, &c. remains when the nerves are defiroved.

Although, if opium be applied either to muscular fibres or nerves, the muscular motion is destroyed, yet this effect proceeds only from the nervous power being affected. Opium does no injury to the heart, because it is not endowed with nerves.

The arteries affift in the circulation of the blood, and are irritable: but their irritability is supported especially by nerves. The small sibres of the arteries act weakly: but the vis nerves, which they posses, beside the irritability, much increases the moving powers of the arteries, and of the muscles; although the nerves may not have been demonstrated in every fieldy fibre, nor in the slessly part of the arteries, but in their coats. There are most nerves in the vessels through which the blood passes with the most difficulty. The instructe of the vis nerves on the arterial system is seen in the instances in which affections of the mind, as well as pains of the body, alter the state of the arteries or of the circulation:

With regard to the cardiac nerves, their character and use are the same as in other situations in which they accompany vessels; these nerves, therefore, assist only in propelling the blood through the coronary arteries. The left coronary artery has the most nerves, because it requires more their assistances from the greater difficulty of the passage of the blood through it.

A few experiments on nervous electricity are imbjoined; but they are familiarly known by Galvani's and Falli's experiments. We only notice that experiment in which, the cardiac nerves being attempted to be irritated by arming and applying the conductor in the usual way, no motion of the heart ensued; nor was the heart excited to action when the stimulus of the nervous electric shuld was taken from other parts.



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ERRATA in Vol. XI.

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Pop 61. line 4. from bott. for "evangelie" read "evangelie."

173. — 1. for "thair," read "thair."

337. — repult. for "Buffy," read "Puffy."

358. — 6. from bott. for "evaporated," read, "incorporated."







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